







A NEW
GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL,
AND
COMMERCIAL GRAMMAR;
AND PRESENT STATE OF THE
SEVERAL KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD.

CONTAINING,

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| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Figures, Motions, and Distances of the Planets, according to the Newtonian System, and the latest Observations. 2. A general View of the Earth, considered as a Planet; with several useful Geographical Definitions and Problems. 3. The grand Divisions of the Globe into Land and Water, Continents, and Islands. 4. The Situation and Extent of Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, and Colonies. 5. Their Climate, Air, Soil, Vegetable Productions, Metals, Minerals, Natural Curiosities, Seas, Rivers, Bays, Capes, Promontories, and Lakes. 6. The Birds and Beasts peculiar to each Country. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. Observations on the Changes that have been any where observed upon the Face of Nature, since the most early Periods of History. 8. The History and origin of Nations, their Forms of Government, Religion, Laws, Revenues, Taxes, Naval and Military Strength, Orders of Knighthood, &c. 9. The Genius, Manners, Customs, and Habits of the People. 10. Their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce. 11. The Chief Cities, Structures, Ruins, and Artificial Curiosities. 12. The Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Distances of principal places from London. |
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TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

1. A GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX, WITH THE NAMES OF PLACES ALPHABETICALLY ARRANGED. 2. A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF REMARKABLE EVENTS, FROM THE CREATION TO THE PRESENT TIME. 3. A LIST OF MEN OF LEARNING AND SCIENCE.

BY WILLIAM GUTHRIE, ESQ.

THE ASTRONOMICAL PART BY JAMES FERGUSON, F. R. S.

TO WHICH HAVE BEEN ADDED

THE LATE DISCOVERIES OF DR. HERSCHEL, AND OTHER EMINENT ASTRONOMERS,

ILLUSTRATED WITH TWENTY-EIGHT CORRECT MAPS.

separate volumes

THE SECOND AMERICAN EDITION IMPROVED.

IN TWO VOLUMES.....VOL. II.

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1815,

DISTRICT OF PENNSYLVANIA, TO WIT :

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D. CALDWELL, Clerk
of the District of Pennsylvania.

CONTENTS OF VOLUME II.

ASIA.

Its Situation, Boundaries, Grand Divisions, and History	Page 1
Turkey in Asia	4
Islands belonging to Turkey in Asia	21
Arabia	24
Persia	31
Hindoostan	46
India beyond the Ganges	82
China	88
Chinese Tartary	109
Tibet	114
Independent Tartary	122
Russian Empire in Asia	126
Islands belonging to Russia in Asia	133
Indian and Oriental Islands	136

AFRICA.

Its situation, Boundaries, Grand Divisions, and History	144
The States of Barbary	148
Egypt	156
Abyssinia	168
Interior Countries of Africa	178
Western Coast of Africa	188
Colony of the Cape of Good Hope	192
Country of the Hottentots	196
Caffraria	203
Eastern Coast of Africa	207
African Islands	209

AMERICA.

Its Discovery and History	216
Original Inhabitants	227
Extent, Boundaries, Productions	236
Grand Divisions	239
Greenland	241
British America. { New Britain	244
Lower Canada	247
Upper Canada	255
Nova Scotia and New Brunswick	258
British Islands in North America	261
United States of America	264
New-England	384
Vermont	390
New-Hampshire	400
Massachusetts, including the District of Maine	404
Rhode Island	409
Connecticut	412

2 leaves

CONTENTS OF VOLUME II.

New-York	Page	415
New-Jersey		424
Pennsylvania		427
Delaware		435
Maryland		438
Virginia		442
Kentucky		449
North Carolina		454
South Carolina		460
Georgia		465
Tennessee		469
Ohio		473
Louisiana		482
State of Louisiana		483
District of Columbia		491
Michigan Territory		492
Indiana Territory		493
Illinois Territory		494
Mississippi Territory		496
Missouri Territory		498
General Description of the West Indies		508
Jamaica, and other Islands in the West Indies		511
Spanish America.		
{ Old Mexico, or New Spain	} North America {	519
{ New Mexico, including California		524
{ East and West Florida		525
{ Terra Firma	} South America. {	527
{ Peru		530
{ Chili		534
{ Paraguay, or La Plata		536
Spanish Islands in America		539
Portuguese America, Brazil		542
French America, Cayenne		547
French Islands in America		ib.
Dutch America, Surinam		551
Dutch Islands in America		552
Danish Islands in America		553
Islands of the South Sea, and Late Discoveries		554
Otaheite, or King George's Island		ib.
Society Islands		557
Oheteroa		559
Navigators' Islands		ib.
Friendly Islands		560
Marquesas Islands		561
New Hebrides		ib.
New Zealand		562
New Holland		ib.
New Guinea		564
Pelew Islands		565
Ingraham's Islands		566
Sandwich Islands		ib.
North West Coast of America		569
A New Geographical Table, alphabetically arranged		571
Chronological Table of Remarkable Events, &c.		583
List of Men of Learning and Science		598

ASIA.

AS Asia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is also superior to them in the serenity of its air, the fertility of its soil, the deliciousness of its fruits, the fragrancy and balsamic qualities of its plants, spices, and gums; the salubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richness of its metals, and the fineness of its silks and cottons. It was in Asia, according to the sacred records, that the all-wise Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the first man and first woman, from whom the race of mankind was to spring. Asia became again the nursery of the world after the deluge, whence the descendants of Noah dispersed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Asia that God placed his once-favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accomplished by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious Gospel was carried, with amazing rapidity, into all the known nations, by his disciples and followers. Here the first Christian churches were founded, and the Christian faith miraculously propagated and cherished, even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded; while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest. But it must be owned that a great change has happened in that part of it called Turkey, which has lost much of its ancient splendour; and from the most populous and best cultivated spot in Asia, is almost become a wild and uncultivated desert. The other parts of Asia continue much in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility as most of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in some measure heightened by custom and education: and the symptoms of it are more or less visible, as the several nations are seated nearer or further from the north. Hence the Tartars, who live in nearly the same latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, strong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the robust frame of their bodies, among the Chinese, Hindoos, and all the inhabitants of the most southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanship, which our most skilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vast extent of territory was successively governed, in early times, by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks; but the immense regions of India and China were little known to

Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of those empires, great part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms ; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the successors of Mahommed, or, as they were usually called, Saracens, founded in Asia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman when in its height of power. The Saracen greatness ended with the death of Tamerlane ; and the Turks, conquerors on every side, took possession of the middle regions of Asia, which they still enjoy. The prevailing form of government, in this division of the globe, is absolute monarchy. If any of its inhabitants can be said to enjoy some share of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Asiatic nations, when the Dutch first came among them, could not conceive how it was possible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a despotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Persia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profess Mahommedanism. The Persian and Indian Mahommedans are of the sect of Ali, and the others of that of Omar : but both own Mahommed for their law-giver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Asiatic islands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Asia. Christianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity, by the apostles and primitive fathers, suffered an almost total eclipse by the conquests of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks : incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and sufferings of the catholic missionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the most distant regions, and among the grossest idolaters ; but their labours have hitherto failed of success, owing in a great measure to the avarice, cruelty, and injustice, of the Europeans, who resort thither in search of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages spoken in Asia are, the modern Greek, the Turkish, the Russian, the Tartarian, the Persian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chinese, and the Japanese. The European languages are also spoken upon the coasts of India and China.

The continent of Asia is situated between 25 and 190 degrees of east or 170 of west longitude, and between the equator and 78 degrees of north latitude. It is about 6050 miles in length from the Dardanelles on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary ; and about 5460 miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca, to the most northern cape of Asiatic Russia. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north ; on the west it is separated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the Sea of Marmora, the Bosphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the east, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, which separates it from America ; and on the south, by the Indian Ocean ; so that it is almost surrounded by the sea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow :

DSI

	Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Distance and bearing from London.	Difference of time from London.	Religion.
Tartary.	Asiatic Russia	5300	1900	3,050,000	Tobolsk	2160 N. E.	4 10 before	Ch. and Pag.
	Chinese	3000	1080	944,000	Chynian	4480 N. E.	8 4 before	Pagans.
	Tibet	1500	500	385,000	Lasse	3780 E.	5 40 before	Pagans.
	Independ.	1500	850	500,000	Samar-cand	2800 E.	4 36 before	Pagans.
	China	1350	1060	1,298,000	Pekin	4320 S. E.	7 24 before	Pagans.
	Hindoostan	1890	1550	870,910	Delhi	3720 S. E.	5 16 before	Mah. and P.
	Ind. beyond the Ganges	2000	1000	741,500	Siam Pegu	5040 S. E.	1 44 before	Pag. and M.
	Persia	1300	1050	800,000	Ispahan	2460 S. E.	3 20 before	Mahom.
	Arabia	1400	1260	700,000	Mecca	2640 S. E.	2 52 before	Mahom.
	Syria.	270	160	29,000	Aleppo	1860 S. E.	2 30 before	Ch. and Ma.
Turkey in Asia.	Holy Land	210	90	7600	Jerusalem	1920 S. E.	2 24 before	Ch. and Ma.
	Natolia.	750	390	195,000	Bursa, or Smyrna	1440 S. E.	1 48 before	Mahom.
	Diarbeck, or Mesopotamia.	240	210	27,000	Diarbeck	2060 S. E.	2 56 before	Mahome-tans with some few Chris-tians.
	Irac, or Chaldea	420	240	50,400	Bagdad	2240 S. E.	3 4 before	
	Tureomania or Armenia	360	300	55,000	Erzeram	1860 S. E.	2 44 before	
	Georgia*	240	180	25,600	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 before	
	Curdistan or Assyria	210	205	23,900	Mousul	2220 E.	3 — before	Mahom.

* Georgia has lately put itself under the protection of Russia.

All the islands of Asia (except Cyprus, in the Levant, belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eastern Ocean, and the Indian Seas; of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have settlements are,

ISLANDS.	TOWNS.	Sq. Miles.	Trade with or be- longing to
The Japanese isles	Jeddo, Meaco	138,000	Dutch
The Ladrone	Guam	17,000	Spain
Formosa	Tai-oan-fou	11,900	China
Anian	Kiontcheow	133,700	
The Philippines	Manilla	400	Spain
The Molucca, or Clove isles	Victoria Fort, Ternate	68,400	Dutch
The Banda, or Nutmeg isles	Lantor	10,400	Dutch
Amboyna } surrounding the	Amboyna	228,000	Dutch
Celebes } Mollucca and	Mecassa	129,000	Dutch
Gilolo, &c. } Banda isles	Gilolo	33,250	Dutch
The Sunda isles { Borneo	Borneo, Caytongee	27,730	All Nations
	Sumatra	English & Dutch
	Java, &c.	Dutch
The Andaman and Nicobar isles	Andaman, Nicobar	All Nations
Ceylon	Candy	Dutch
The Maldives	Caridon	All Nations
Bombay	Bombay	English
The Kurile isles, and those in the sea of Kamtschatka, lately discovered by the Russians			Russia

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1120	} between	28 and 44 North latitude.
Breadth	1010		26 and 45 East longitude.

Containing 470,400 square miles.

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by the Black Sea and Circassia on the North; by Persia on the East; by Arabia and the Levant Sea on the South; and by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separate it from Europe, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
The eastern provinces are	1. Irac Arabia, or Chaldea	Bassorah and Bagdad.
	2. Diarbeck, or Mesopotamia	Diarbeck, Orsa, &c.
	3. Curdistan, or Assyria	Mousul and Betlis.
	4. Turcomania, or Armenia	Erzerum and Van.
	5. Georgia, including Mingrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circassia	Teflis, Armarchia, & Gonie; Bursa, Nici, Smyrna, & Ephesus.
Natolia, or the Lesser Asia, on the west.	1. Natolia Proper	Amasia, Trapezon
	2. Amasia	and Sinope.
	3. Aladulia	Ajazzo and Marat.
	4. Caramania	Satalia and Terrasso.
East of the Levant Sea.	{ Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land.	Aleppo, Scanderoon,
		Antioch, Damasçus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Jerusalem.

MOUNTAINS....These are famous in sacred as well as profane writings. The most remarkable are, Olympus, Taurus, and Anti-taurus; Caucasus, and Ararat; Lebanon, and Hermon.

RIVERS, LAKES, MINERAL WATERS....The same may be observed of the rivers, which are, the Euphrates, which rises in the mountains of Armenia, and falls into the Persian Gulf, after a course of about 1400 English miles; the Tigris, which falls into the Euphrates about 60 miles to the north of Bassora, after a course of nearly 800 miles; the Mæander, the Sarabat or ancient Hermus, the Orontes in Syria, and the Jordan.

The lake of Van, in Curdistan, is about 80 miles long and 40 broad. The lake of Rackama, to the south of Hilla and the ancient Babylon, is about 30 miles in length, and has a communication with the Euphrates. The lake of Asphaltites, usually called the Dead Sea, in Palestine, into which the Jordan flows, is about 50 miles in length and 12 in breadth.

The mineral waters of Prusa or Byrsa, at the foot of Mount Olympus, are in great estimation. The water smokes, and is so hot as to scald the hand. There are several other hot and mineral springs in different parts of Asiatic Turkey.

METALS, MINERALS....The mountainous provinces of Turkey in Asia no doubt abound in a variety of valuable minerals and metals; but the ignorance and indolence of those who possess the country are so great that nature has lavished her gifts in vain.

CLIMATE....Though the climate of this country is delightful in the utmost degree, and naturally salubrious to the human constitution, yet such is the equality with which the Author of Nature has dispensed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited by the plague; a fearful scourge to mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in a predestination, which prevents them from using the proper precautions to defend themselves against this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE....As this country contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, it is scarcely necessary to inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance, notwithstanding the indolence of its owners. Raw silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almost without culture, which is practised chiefly by Greek and Armenian Christians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in these provinces are highly delicious, and in such plenty, that they cost the inhabitants a mere trifle, and, it is said, in some places nothing. Their asparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed those of other countries in largeness. In short, nature has brought all her productions here to the highest perfection.

ANIMALS....The breed of the Turkish and Arabian horses, the latter especially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have considerably improved that of the English. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to these countries, but they contain all that are necessary for the use of mankind. Camels are here in much request, from their strength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their manufacture, known by the name of camlets, was originally made by a mixture of camel's hair and silk, though it is now often made with wool and silk. Their kids and sheep are exquisite eating; and are said to surpass, in flavour and taste, those of Europe; but their butcher's meat in general, beef particularly, is not so fine.

As to birds, here are wild fowl in great perfection: the ostriches are well known by their talines, swiftness in running, and stupidity. The Roman epicures prized no fish, except lampreys, mullets, and oysters, but those that were found in Asia.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES....The natural curiosities of Asiatic Turkey, though no doubt they must be numerous, seem to have been little explored or described by travellers, who have in general been more attentive to the remains of antiquity with which almost all the provinces of this empire abound.

PROVINCES, CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES....The cities and towns of Turkey in Asia are very numerous, and at the same time very insignificant, because they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Aleppo, however, preserves a respectable rank among the cities of the Asiatic Turkey. It is still the capital of Syria, and is superior in its buildings and conveniences to most of the Turkish cities. The houses, as usual in the East, consist

of a large court, with a dead wall to the street : an arcade or piazza running round it paved with marble ; and an elegant fountain of the same in the middle. Aleppo, and its suburbs, are seven miles in compass, standing on eight small hills, on the highest of which the citadel, or castle, is erected, but of no great strength. An old wall, and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, surround the city, which was estimated by the late Dr. Russel to contain 230,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 were Christians and 5000 Jews ; but at present, according to Mr. Eton, it does not contain more than 50,000, which depopulation has chiefly taken place since 1770. Whole streets are uninhabited, and bazars abandoned. It is furnished with most of the conveniences of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aqueduct, distant about four miles, said to have been erected by the empress Helena. The streets are narrow, but well paved with large square stones, and are kept very clean. The gardens are pleasant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and pistachio trees : but the country round is rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and transact their business in caravanseras, or large square buildings, containing their ware houses, lodging-rooms, and counting-houses. This city abounds in neat, and some of them magnificent mosques ; public bagnios, which are very refreshing ; and bazars, or market-places, which are formed into long, narrow, arched, or covered streets, with little shops, as in other parts of the East. Their coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury ; and their sweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendour and safety than in any other city in the Turkish empire, in consequence of particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not used here, but persons of quality ride on horseback, with a number of servants before them, according to their rank. The English, French, and Dutch, have consuls, who are much respected, and appear abroad, the English especially, with marks of distinction. Scanderoon, or Alexandretta, about 70 miles to the west of Aleppo, and the port of that city is now almost depopulated. Superb remains of Antiquity are found in its neighbourhood.

As the mosques and bagnios, or baths, mentioned above, are built in nearly the same manner in all the Mahommedan countries, we shall here give a general description of them.

Mosques are religious buildings, square, and generally of stone : before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, the roof of which is supported by marble pillars. Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the Mahommedans go into the mosque. About every mosque there are six high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers, as well as the mosques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments ; and from thence, instead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter the mosque ; nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Near most mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers during three days ; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniences for reading the Koran and praying.

The bagnios in the Mahommedan countries are admirably well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but often circular, built of white well polished stone, or marble. Each

bagnio contains three rooms ; the first for dressing and undressing ; the second contains the water, and the third the bath ; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious but wholesome ; though to those not accustomed to it it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and stretches his limbs as if he were dislocating every bone in the body ; all which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon ; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath display their finest clothes.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far, it is supposed, from the site of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens, in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular square, and rudely fortified ; but the conveniency of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and it has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and western caravans. The houses of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the free circulation of the air ; many of the windows are made of elegant Venetian glass, and the ceilings ornamented with checquered work. Most of the houses have also a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange-trees. The number of houses is computed at 80,000, each of which pays an annual tribute to the pasha, which is calculated to produce 300,000*l.* sterling. The bazars, in which the tradesmen have their shops, are tolerably handsome, large, and extensive, filled with shops of all kinds of merchandise, to the number of 12,000. These were erected by the Persians, when they were in possession of the place, as were also their bagnios, and almost every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. The population of Bagdad has, however, greatly declined within these few years. The plague of 1773, carried off two-thirds of the inhabitants, who now scarcely amount to 20,000 ; for here, as at Aleppo, whole streets and bazars are desolate. In this city are five mosques, two of which are well built, and have handsome domes, covered with varnished tiles of several colours. Two chapels are permitted for those of the Romish and Greek persuasions. On the north-west corner of the city stands the castle, which is of white stone, and commands the river, consisting of curtains and bastions, on which some large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each bastion ; but in the year 1779 they were so honey-combed and bad, as to be supposed not to be able to support one firing. Below the castle, by the water-side, is the palace of the Turkish governor ; and there are several summer-houses in the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians who inhabited this city under the caliphs were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Bassorah, or Basrah, situate on the Euphrates, about 40 miles from the Persian Gulf, is a place of considerable trade, containing about 50,000 inhabitants ; but it is scarcely to be included in the Turkish dominions, since it belongs to an independent Arab prince, who pays very little respect to the Ottoman court.

Ancient Assyria is now called the Turkish Curdistan, though part of it is subject to the Persians. The capital is Curdistan, the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of ruins. Curdistan is said to be for the

most part cut out of a mountain, and is the residence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orfar, formerly Edessa, is the capital of the fine province of Mesopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly supported by a manufacture of Turkey leather. Mousul is also in the same province, a large place, situated on the west shore of the Tigris, opposite where Nineveh formerly stood.

Georgia, or Gurgistan, now no longer subject to the Turks, is chiefly inhabited by Christians. The natives of this country are a brave, warlike race of men. Their capital, Teflis, is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance; all the houses are of stone, neat and clean, with flat roofs, which serve as walks for the women; but the streets are dirty and narrow. The number of inhabitants is about 30,000. It is situated at the foot of a mountain, by the side of the river Kur, and is surrounded by strong walls, except on the side of the river. It has a large fortress on the declivity of a mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garrison consists of native Persians. There are thirteen Greek churches in Teflis, seven Armenian, and one Roman-catholic church; the Mahommedans who are here have no mosques. In the neighbourhood of the city are many pleasant houses, and fine gardens. The Georgians, in general, are, by some travellers, said to be the handsomest people in the world, which is attributed to their having early received the practice of inoculation for the small-pox. They make no scruple of selling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many distinguished liberties and privileges. Lately they have formed an alliance with Russia, under the brave prince Heracleus; as has the czar or prince Solomon, sovereign of Immeratta, a district between the Caspian and Black Seas, who is distinguished from his subjects (all of the Greek religion) by riding on an ass, and wearing boots.

The ancient cities of Damascus, Tyre and Sidon, still retain part of their former trade. Damascus is called Sham, and the approach to it, by the river, is inexpressibly beautiful. It contains a fine mosque, which was formerly a Christian church. It still is famous for its steel works, such as sword-blades, knives, and the like, the excellent temper of which is said to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture also those beautiful silks, called damasks, from their city, and carry on a considerable traffic in raw and worked silk, rose-water extracted from the famous damask roses, fruits, and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is still beautiful, especially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, now Said, which likewise lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has still some trade, and a tolerable harbour.

Tyre, now called Sur, about twenty miles distant from Sidon, so famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by scarcely any but a few miserable fishermen, who live among the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are strong walls on the land side, of stone, eighteen feet high, and seven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half, and Christians and Mahommedans make up the number of about five hundred. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are still visible. The pavements of the old city, Mr. Bruce tells us, he saw, and observes that they were seven feet and a half lower than the ground upon which the present city stands. Passing by Tyre (says our author, who deserves much praise for some happy elucidations of Scripture) I came to be a mournful witness of the truth.

of that prophecy, "That Tyre, Queen of Nations, would be a rock for fishers to dry their nets on."* Two wretched fishermen, with miserable nets having just given over their occupation, with very little success, I engaged them, at the expence of their nets, to drag in those places where they said shell-fish might be caught, in hopes to have brought out one of the famous purple fish. I did not succeed; but in this I was, I believe, as lucky as the old fishers had ever been. The purple fish at Tyre seems to have been only a concealment of their knowledge of cochineal, as, had they depended upon their fish for the dye, if the whole city of Tyre applied to nothing else but fishing they would not have coloured twenty yards of cloth in a year.†

In Natolia, or Asia Minor, is Smyrna, which may be considered as the third city in Asiatic Turkey. It contains about 120,000 inhabitants. The excellence of its harbour renders it the centre of all the traffic carried on between Europe and the Levant, and preserves it in a flourishing state; but the rest of this country, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amasia, all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman history, are now, through the Turkish indolence and tyranny, either forsaken, or a theatre of ruins. The sites of ancient cities are still discernible; and so luxurious is nature in those countries, that in many places she triumphs over her forlorn condition. The selfish Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themselves, and their gardens and summer houses fill up the circuit of their most flourishing cities. The most judicious travellers, upon an attentive survey of those countries, fully vindicate all that has been said by sacred and profane writers of their beauty, strength, fertility, and population. Even Palestine and Judæa, the most despicable at present of all those countries, lie buried within the luxuries of their own soil. The Turks seem particularly fond of representing the latter in the most gloomy colours, and have formed a thousand falsehoods concerning it, which, being artfully propagated by some among ourselves, have imposed upon weak Christians.‡

ANTIQUITIES....The remains of ancient edifices and monuments in Turkey in Asia are so numerous that they have furnished matter for many voluminous publications. The provinces which compose this country contained all that was rich and magnificent, in architecture and sculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have suffered from the Europeans, seem to have diminished the number of these valuable antiquities. They are more

* Ezek. chap. xxvi 5.

† Bruce's Travels, vol. i. Introduction, p. lix.

‡ The late reverend Dr. Shaw, professor of Greek at Oxford, who seems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the soundest philosophy to make the most just observations, says, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very best parts of Syria and Phœnicia, because the soil is generally much richer, and, every thing considered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenness, says he, of which some authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of the inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who possess it, and the perpetual discords and depredations of the petty princes who share this fine country. Indeed, the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Palestine," says Mr. Wood, "we have often seen the husbandman sowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the seed" And, after all, who-
ever sows, is uncertain whether he shall ever reap the harvest.

or less perfect, according to the air, soil, or climate, in which they stand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the finest temples are converted into Turkish mosques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than those which remain in ruins. Amidst such a vast variety of curiosities, we shall select some of the most striking.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Ismir) contains many noble and beautiful antiquities. The same may be said of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in ancient times. The site of old Troy cannot be distinguished by the smallest vestige, and is known only by its being opposite to the isle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble, built in honour of Augustus Cæsar, at Milasso, in Caria, and a few structures of the same kind in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are still entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, near Latakia, have suffered very little from time or barbarism; and some travellers think they discern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Ephesus.

Balbec is situated on a rising plain, between Tripoli, in Syria, and Damascus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, and is the Heliopolis of Cælo-Syria. Its remains of antiquity display, according to the best judges, the boldest plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpressibly superb, though disfigured by two Turkish towers. The hexagonal court behind is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. The walls were adorned with Corinthian pilasters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the same taste and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now so ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three pieces, joined together by iron pins, without cement. Some of those pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the sordid Turks are daily at work to destroy the columns for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relievo, and the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors. To the west of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic orders, but disfigured with Turkish mosques and houses. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably beautiful and stupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of these immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon, but some make them so modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his successors may have rebuilt some part of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole, seem to fix their foundation to a period before the Christian æra, though we cannot refer them to the ancient times of the Jews, or Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek style in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at present a little city encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in, or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the ancient ruins. A free-stone quarry in the neighbourhood furnished the stones for the body of the temple; and one of the stones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep; its weight

must be 1135 tons. A coarse white marble quarry, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the desert, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, in about 33 degrees of north latitude, and 200 miles to the south-east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, which have been drawn and published by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, visited it about fifty years ago, purposely to preserve some remembrance of such a curiosity. As those drawings, or copies from them, are now common, we must refer the reader to them, especially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonnade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticoes, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest style, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so dispersed and disjointed, that it is impossible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. These striking ruins are contrasted by the miserable huts of the wild Arabs, who reside in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man that so superb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of what now are tracts of barren uninhabitable sands. Nothing however is more certain than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom, that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eastern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans and the western nations, for the merchandises and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have turned the most fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history it is not mentioned before the time of Mark Antony; and its most superb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow, Zenobia, reigned in great glory for some time; and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Unwilling to submit to the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, and led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and, among others the excellent Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. None of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach above the Christian æra, though there can be no doubt that the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendor, but without effect, for it dwindled, by degrees, to its present wretched state. It has been observed, very justly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to those of Balbec.

Between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where some superstitious and visionary people have sought the situation of Paradise, there are some tracts which undoubtedly deserve that name. The different ruins, some of them inexpressibly magnificent, that are to be found in these immense regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; so great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for these thousand years past. It is, indeed, easy to pronounce whether the style of their building be Greek, Roman, or Saracen: but all other information must come from their inscriptions.

Nothing can be more futile than the boasted antiquities shown by the Greek and Armenian priests in and near Jerusalem, which is well known to have been so often rased to the ground, and rebuilt anew, that no scene of our Saviour's life and sufferings can be ascertained; and yet those ecclesiastics subsist by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every spot mentioned in the Old and New Testament. They are, it is true, under severe contributions to the Turks, but the trade still goes on, though much diminished in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, said to be built by Helena, mother to Constantine the Great, is still standing, and of tolerably good architecture; but its different divisions, and the dispositions made round it, are chiefly calculated to support the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches built by the same lady are found in Palestine; but the country is so altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the most despicable of any in Asia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any vestiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon. But the most fertile country, abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs, must in time become a desert. Thus oppression soon thinned the delicious plains of Italy; and the noted countries of Greece and Asia the Less, once the glory of the world, are now nearly destitute of learning, arts, and people.

ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF THE TURKS....It has been the fate of the more southern and fertile parts of Asia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men who inhabit the vast country known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of these people, called Turks or Turcomans, extended its conquests under various leaders, and during several centuries, from the shore of the Caspian to the Straits of the Dardanelles. Being long resident, in the capacity of body-guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief residence was in the neighbourhood of Mount Caucasus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major; and after being employed as mercenaries by the sultans of Persia, they seized that kingdom about the year 1037, and spread their ravages all over the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometanism, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were sometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declension of the caliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themselves masters of Palestine; and the visiting of the holy city of Jerusalem being then part of the Christian exercises, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under such heavy contributions, and exercised such cruelties upon the

Christian inhabitants of the country, as gave rise to the famous crusades, which we have mentioned more fully in the Introduction.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progress of the Christians than the Turks; and though, after oceans of blood were spilt, a Christian kingdom was erected at Jerusalem, under Godfrey of Boulogne, neither he nor his successors were possessed of any real power of maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1229, had extended their dominions on every side, and possessed themselves, under Othman, of some of the finest provinces in Asia, of Nice, and Prusa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, first embodied them into a nation: hence they took the name of Othmans, from that leader; the appellation of Turks, signifying *wanderers* or *banished men*, being considered by them as a term of reproach. Othman is to be styled the founder of the Turkish or Ottoman empire, and was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes recorded in history. About the year 1357, they passed the Hellespont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath settled the seat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1360: under him the order of janisaries was established. Such were their conquests, that Bajazet I, after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigismund, laid siege to Constantinople, in hopes of subjecting all the Greek empire. His greatness and insolence provoked Timur, or Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was just then returned from his eastern conquests, to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates; when Bajazet's army was cut to pieces, and he himself taken prisoner, and shut up in an iron cage, where he ended his life.

The successors of Tamerlane, by declaring war against each other, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long siege, Mahomet II, took Constantinople, in 1453. Thus, after an existence of ten centuries, from its first commencement under Constantine the Great, ended the Greek empire: an event which had been long foreseen, and was owing to many causes; the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themselves, their courts and families, and the dislike their subjects had to the popes and the western church: one of the patriarchs declaring publicly to a Romish legate, "that he would rather see a turban than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Constantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conquests, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to subjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks still exist, as we have already observed, particularly in Constantinople and the neighbouring islands, where, though under grievous oppressions, they profess Christianity under their own patriarchs of Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem; and the Armenians have three patriarchs, who are richer than those of the Greek church, on account of their people being more wealthy and more conversant in trade. It is said that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkish government, still retain somewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles, which distinguished their ancestors.

The conquest of Constantinople was followed by the submission of

all Greece: and from this time the Turks have been considered as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was succeeded by Bajazet II, who carried on war against the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as Persia and Egypt. Bajazet, falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harassed by family differences, and at last, by order of his second son, Selim, was poisoned by a Jew physician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldest brother, Achmet, to be strangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Persians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Persia, he turned his arms against Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, in the year 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was succeeded in 1520, by his son Soliman the Magnificent, who, taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Christian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that island to Malta, which was given them by the emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Christian powers, and generally successful, both by sea and land. He took Buda, the metropolis of Hungary at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives, A. D. 1526, and two years afterwards advanced into Austria, and besieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. He miscarried also in an attempt he made to take the isle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greatest prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was succeeded, in 1566, by his son Selim II. In his reign the Turkish marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Christians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkish power, had the blow been pursued by the Christians, especially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis in Africa from the Moors. He was succeeded in 1575, by his son, Amurath III, who forced the Persians to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewise took the important fortress of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, he was succeeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is distinguished by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be strangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were supposed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the sea. He was often unsuccessful in his wars with the Christians, and died of the plague in 1604. Though his successor Achmet was beaten by the Persians, yet he forced the Austrians to a treaty in 1606, and to consent that he should keep what he was possessed of in Hungary. Osman, a prince of great spirit, but no more than sixteen years of age, being unsuccessful against the Poles, was put to death by the janisaries, whose power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV, succeeded in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Persians. His brother, Ibrahim, succeeded him in 1640; a worthless, inactive prince, and strangled by the janisaries in 1648. His successor, Mahomet IV, was excellently well served by his grand vizier, Cuperli. He took Candia from the Venetians, after it had been besieged for thirty years. This conquest cost the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is said, 180,000. A bloody war succeeded between the Imperialists and the Turks, in which the latter were so successful, that they laid siege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raise it with great loss, by John Sobieski, king of Poland, and other Christian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687,

shut up in prison by his subjects, and succeeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unsuccessful in their wars during his reign, and that of his brother and successor, Achmet I; but Mustapha II, who ascended the throne in 1694, headed his armies in person. After some active campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz, between the Imperialists and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Mustapha was deposed, his mufti was beheaded, and his brother Achmet III, mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave shelter, at Bender, to Charles XII, of Sweden; and ended a war with the Russians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. When the Russian army was surrounded without hopes of escape, the czarina inclined the grand vizier to the peace, by a present of all the money, plate, and jewels, that were in the army: but the Russians delivered up to the Turks Asoph, Kaminieck, and Tauganrog, and agreed to evacuate Poland. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Christian powers. The scene of action was transferred to Hungary, where the Imperial general, prince Eugene, gave so many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a disgraceful peace at Passarowitz, in 1718. An unsuccessful war with the Persians, under Kouli Khan, succeeding, the populace demanded the heads of the vizier, the chief admiral, and secretary, which were accordingly struck off; but the sultan also was deposed, and Mahomet V, advanced to the throne. He likewise was unsuccessful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at last obliged to recognise that usurper as king of Persia. He was afterwards engaged in a war with the Imperialists and Russians: against the former he was victorious; but the successes of the latter, which threatened Constantinople itself, forced him to agree to a hasty treaty with the emperor, and, after that, another with the Russians, which was greatly to his advantage. Mahomet died in 1754.

He was succeeded by his brother, Osman III, who died in 1757, and was succeeded by his brother Mustapha III, who died on the 21st of January, 1774, whilst engaged in an unsuccessful war with the Russians, of which some account has been already given in the history of that country. In the course of this war, a considerable Russian fleet was fitted out, which set sail from the Baltic, with a view of attacking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet having arrived at Minorca, departed from thence in the beginning of February, 1770, and shaped its course for the Morea. Count Orlov having debarked such land forces as he had with him at Maina, a little to the westward of Cape Metapan, and about fifty miles to the south-west of Misitra, the ancient Sparta, the Mainotes, the descendants of the Lacedæmonians, and who still possessed the country of their ancestors, under subjection to the grand-seignor, immediately flew to arms in every quarter, and joined the Russians by thousands, from their aversion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks immediately followed their example, or rather only waited to hear of the arrival of the Russians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea seemed every where in motion. The open country was quickly overrun, and the ancient Laconia, Arcadia, and several other countries, as speedily taken; while the Russian ships, that had been separated, or that put into Italy, arrived successively, and landed their men in different places, where every small detach-

ment soon swelled into a little army, and the Turks were every where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time, the Greeks gave the utmost loose to their revenge, and every where slaughtered the Turks without mercy ; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants of the continent were seized extended itself to the islands, where also the Turks were massacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head against the Russians and Greeks in the field ; their only protection was found within the fortresses. The malcontents had so much increased since the first debarkation of the Russians, that they invested Napoli di Romania, Corinth, and the castle of Patras, with several other places of less note. But whilst they were employed in these enterprises, an army of thirty thousand men, composed chiefly of Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by the seraskier, pacha of Bosnia. This Turkish general recovered all the northern part of the peninsula as soon as he appeared in it ; and all the Greeks that were found in arms, or out of their villages, were instantly put to death. The Russians were now driven back to their ships ; but about the same time, another Russian squadron, commanded by admiral Elphinstone, arrived from England to re-inforce count Orlov's armament. The Turkish fleet also appeared, and an obstinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that island from Natolia, or the Lesser Asia. The Turkish fleet was considerably superior in force, consisting of fifteen ships of the line, from sixty to ninety guns, besides a number of chebeques and galleys, amounting in the whole to near thirty sail ; the Russians had only ten ships of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ships engaged with great resolution, while others on both sides found various causes for not approaching sufficiently near. But Spirito, a Russian admiral, encountered the captain pacha, in the Sultana, of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm ; they fought with the greatest fury, and at length ran so close, that they locked themselves together, with grappling-irons, and other tackling. In this situation, the Russians, by throwing hand-grenades from the tops, set the Turkish ship on fire ; and as they could not now be disentangled, both ships were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumstanced, without a possibility of succour, they both at length blew up with a most terrible explosion. The commanders and principal officers on both sides were mostly saved ; but the crews were almost totally lost. The dreadful fate of those ships, as well as the danger to those that were near them, produced a kind of pause on both sides ; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night without any material advantage on either side. When it became dark, the Turkish fleet cut their cables, and ran into a bay on the coast of Natolia ; the Russians surrounded them thus closely pent up, and in the night some fire-ships were successfully conveyed among the Turkish fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Englishman in the Russian service, who, though abandoned by his crew, himself directed the operations of the fire-ships. The fire took place so effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war and a few galleys, that were towed off by the Russians, was totally destroyed ; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a castle that protected it, with such success, that a shot having blown up the powder magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbish. Thus was there scarcely a vestige

left, at nine o'clock, of a town, a castle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in existence at one the same morning.

Some of the principal military transactions by land, in the war between Russia and Turkey, having been already noticed in our account of the former empire, we shall here only add, that, after a most unfortunate war on the side of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Russians, on the 21st of July 1774, a few months after the accession of Achmet IV. The emperor Mustapha III, left a son, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government in the then critical situation of the Turkish affairs, Mustapha appointed his brother, the late emperor, to succeed him in the throne; and to this prince, under the strongest terms of recommendation, he confided the care of his infant son.

The perseverance of the Turks, supplied by their numerous Asiatic armies, and their implicit submission to their officers, rather than an excellency in military discipline or courage in war, have been the great springs of those successes which have rendered their empire so formidable. The extension, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in some measure owing to the military institution of the janisaries, a corps originally composed of children of such Christian parents as could not pay their taxes. These, being collected together, were formed to the exercise of arms under the eyes of their officers in the seraglio. They were generally in number about 40,000; and so excellent was their discipline, that they were deemed invincible; and they still continue the flower of the Turkish armies: but the Ottoman power is in a declining state. The political state of Europe, and the jealousies that subsist among its princes, is now the surest basis of this empire, and the principal reason why the finest provinces in the world are suffered to remain any longer in the possession of those haughty infidels.

Notwithstanding the peace which was established in 1774, between Russia and the Porte, various sources of discord having been left open, very little tranquillity could subsist between them. For an account of these we refer our readers to our historical narrative of the former empire. Towards the latter end of the year 1786, the Turks seem to have adopted a regular system of indirect hostility against Russia, which was continually making such encroachments, as made the Turks resolve to try again the fortune of war. Scarcely had the empress returned from the splendid journey which she made to Cherson, before a declaration of Turkish hostilities was announced at St. Petersburg. What part the emperor of Germany would take in this war was not at first known. The capriciousness of his character kept the spirit of curiosity in suspense for some little time; but he soon declared himself determined to support all the claims which Russia had upon the Porte.

Instead of being disheartened at the formidable appearance of the confederacy formed against them, the Turks applied themselves with redoubled ardour to prepare for resistance. But an event that seems greatly to have contributed to the ill success experienced by the crescent in the year 1789, was the death of Achmet the Fourth, on the 7th of April.

This prince, if we make suitable allowances for the disadvantages under which he laboured as a despotic monarch, and the prejudices of his country, may be allowed to have possessed some claim to our

esteem. He filled the throne of Constantinople without reflecting disgrace upon human nature. His temper appears to have been mild and humane. He not only permitted Selim, his nephew, son of the late emperor, to live, but even publicly acknowledged him for his successor. His reign was not stained with so many arbitrary murders as those of his predecessors; nor did he think it necessary that a disgraced minister should part at once with his office and his life. He suffered his countrymen to improve by the arts and military discipline of Europe. Yssouf, his prime minister, during the last three years of his life, though by no means consistently great, must be allowed to deserve our applause, and will be better known to posterity as the patron of the Turkish translation of the *Encyclopædia*, than as the victorious and skilful rival of the Austrian arms in the Bannat of Transylvania.

Achmet died at the unenterprising age of sixty-four, and Selim the Third succeeded, at twenty eight. In the vigour of youth, he thought it necessary to distinguish himself by something extraordinary, and at first purposed to put himself at the head of his forces. He was easily, as might be expected from his effeminate education, dissuaded from this rash and ridiculous project. But he conceived that at least it became him to discountenance the ministers of his predecessor, and reverse all their proceedings. These ministers had acquired in some degree the confidence of those who acted under their command; and it appeared in the sequel, that the fantastic splendour of a new and juvenile sovereign could not compensate for the capricious and arbitrary changes with which his accession was accompanied.

In the year 1788 Choczim and Oczakow surrendered to the arms of Russia, as will be found in the history of that country; and on the 12th of September, 1789, the Austrian forces sat down before Belgrade, and with that good fortune which seemed almost constantly to attend their commander, marshal Laudohn, the place, together with its numerous garrison, surrendered, after a vigorous resistance, on the 8th of October. The rest of the campaign was little else than a succession of the most important successes; and a circumstance that did not a little contribute to this, was the system adopted by the Austrians and Russians, of suffering the Turkish troops to march out of the several places they garrisoned without molestation. Bucharest, the capital of Walachia, fell without opposition into the hands of prince Cobourg; while Akerman, on the Black Sea, was reduced by the Russians; and Bender surrendered to prince Potemkin, not without suspicion of sinister practices, on the 15th of November. One only check presented itself to the allied arms. The garrison of Orsova displayed the most inflexible constancy, and marshal Laudohn was obliged to raise the siege of this place in the middle of December, after having sat down before it for a period of six weeks. In a short time after the siege was renewed, and Orsova was reduced the 16th of April, 1790.

After the reduction of Orsova, the war was carried on with languor, on the part of Austria; and in the month of June a conference was agreed upon at Reichenbach, at which the ministers of Prussia, Austria, England, and the United Provinces assisted, and at which also an envoy from Poland was occasionally present. After a negotiation, which continued till the 17th of August, it was agreed that a peace should be concluded between the king of Hungary and the Ot-

toman Porte; that the basis of this treaty should be a general surrender of all the conquests made by the former, retaining only Choczim as a security till the Porte should accede to the terms of agreement; when it was also to be restored. On the other hand the king of Prussia gave up the Belgic provinces, and even promised his assistance in reducing them again to submit to the dominion of Austria.

The king of Prussia was less successful in his mediation with Russia. Catharine had not, like Leopold, an imperial crown at stake, which, unsubstantial as it is, has always its charms with those who are educated in the habitual adoration of rank and dignities. Her conquests also, on the side of Turkey, were too important to be easily relinquished; and she considered her dignity attacked by the insolent style of Prussian mediation. The substance of her answer to the Prussian memorial was, therefore, "That the empress of Russia would make peace and war with whom she pleased, without the interference of any foreign power."

The campaign of 1791 opened, on the part of Russia, with the taking of Maczin, on the 4th of April, by prince Gallitzin; and in a subsequent victory, on the 12th, by the same general, in the neighbourhood of Brailow, the Turks lost not less than 4000 men, and upwards of 100 officers, besides many pieces of cannon. On the 14th the Russian arms experienced a check, by which they lost about 700 men, and were obliged to relinquish their intention of besieging Brailow. After re-inforcing this place, the vizier proceeded to the banks of the Danube, near Silistria; and by means of a bridge which he threw across the river, his advanced posts were enabled to make incursions on the opposite side. The ability of the vizier, and the valour of the Turks, were however exerted in vain against the discipline and experience of European armies. In the month of June, 15,000 Turks were defeated by a party of cavalry under general Kutusow. On the 3d of July the fortress of Anape was taken by general Gudowitch; and the garrison, to the amount of 6000 men, made prisoners. This event was followed, on the 9th of the same month, by a signal victory which prince Repnin obtained near Maczin over a body of 70,000 men, the flower of the Turkish army. The Ottomans left upwards of 4000 dead upon the field of battle, and lost their entire camp-equipage, colours, and 30 pieces of cannon. The Russians are said to have lost only 150 men killed, and between 200 and 300 wounded.

While the war was thus vigorously carried on, the mediating powers were not inactive. Great Britain and Prussia, in particular, declared themselves determined to support the balance of Europe, and to force the empress to peace upon the basis of a *statu quo*. Of the interference of Britain in this dispute, we have treated more largely in another place. To the first applications of the English minister, the empress answered in nearly the same terms in which she had before replied to the memorial of Prussia; "That the British court would not be permitted to dictate the terms of peace." In the course of the negotiation, however, her demands became more moderate: and as the northern powers, and particularly Denmark, began to exert themselves for the prevention of hostilities, she confined her views to the possession of Oczakow, with the district extending from the Bog to the Dneister, and even then providing for the free navigation of the latter river. The negotiation was protracted to the 11th of August, when at length peace was concluded between the czarina and the

Porte, nearly upon these terms; terms which, considering the ill success of the war, cannot be accounted very disadvantageous to the Turks, who lost a fortress more useful for the purpose of annoying Russia than for defending their own territories; but certainly of considerable importance to Russia, which, by this cession, secured the peaceable possession of the Crimea.

It is computed that in this war Turkey lost 200,000 soldiers; Russia 100,000; the Austrians, who fell in the battle, or in the unhealthy marshes, are supposed to exceed 130,000.

The treacherous and wanton invasion of Egypt by the French, in 1798, without even the pretence that the Porte had given them any cause of offence, justly provoked the Turks to declare war against France; but of the hostilities which took place between these powers, and which have been almost entirely confined to the attack on Egypt, and some towns in Syria, an account is given elsewhere: it is therefore unnecessary to repeat it here.

Selim III, born in 1761, succeeded to the throne of Turkey on the death of his uncle, the late sultan, April 7, 1789.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO TURKEY

IN ASIA.

THE greater part of the Grecian islands in the Archipelago are considered by geographers as situate in Europe; but those which are very near to the Asiatic coast, with the island of Cyprus in that part of the Mediterranean called the Levant, or Eastern sea, must be referred to Asia.

TENEDOS is remarkable only for its lying opposite to old Troy, and being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal security. It has a town of the same name.

METELIN, the ancient LESBOS, the principal city of which was Mytilene, whence the modern name, is situate to the north of the gulf of Smyrna, about ten miles from the coast of Africa. It is about forty miles long and twenty-four broad. It produces excellent oil and wine, the latter of which was anciently in high esteem, and still sells at a great price. It is famous for having been the native place of Sappho. The ancient Lesbians were accused of dissolute manners, and the modern inhabitants, it is said, too much resemble them in this respect.

SCIO, anciently CHIOS, lies about eighty miles west of Smyrna, and is about one hundred miles in circumference. This island, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and about 3000 Latins. It has 300 churches, besides chapels and monasteries; and a Turkish garrison of 1400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and silk, and the lentisk-tree, or mastic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almost all the other Greek islands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their persons have been the most perfect models of symmetry to painters and statuaries. A late learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, says, "The beautiful Greek girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. Many of these were sitting at the doors and windows, twisting cotton or silk, or employed in spinning and needle-work, and accosted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome as we passed. The streets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear short petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their head-dress, which is peculiar to the island, is a kind of turban; the linen so white and thin, it seemed snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel.

Some wore them fastened with a thong. Their garments were silk of various colours ; and their whole appearance so fantastic and lively as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a separate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and show a little square house, which they call Homer's school.

SAMOS lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request ; and the island also produces wool, which they sell to the French ; oil, pomegranates, and silk. This island is supposed to have been the native country of Juno : and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city Samos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the south of Samos lies PATMOS, about twenty miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven : and the few Greek monks who are upon the island show a cave where St. John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

STANCHIO, the ancient Cos, on the coast of Lesser Asia, nearly twelve miles from the continent, is about twenty-five miles long and ten broad. It abounds with cypress and turpentine trees, and a variety of medicinal plants. This island has a town of the same name, situated in a bay, with a harbour defended by a castle. Cos is famous for having been the birth-place of the great father of medicine, Hippocrates, and the celebrated painter Apelles.

The island of RHODES is situated in $28^{\circ} 45'$ of east longitude, and $35^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, about twenty miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about thirty-six miles long, and fifteen broad. This island is healthful and pleasant, and abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life ; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town, which also bears the name of Rhodes, is situated on the side of a hill fronting the sea, and is three miles in circumference, interspersed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour of Rhodes is the grand-seignior's principal arsenal for shipping, and the place is esteemed among the strongest fortresses belonging to the Turks. The colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of the harbour, and was fifty fathoms wide, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world : one foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passed between its legs ; and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The face of the colossus represented the Sun, to whom this image was dedicated ; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea ; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, but lost it to them in 1522, after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CYPRUS lies in the Levant Sea, about thirty miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is 160 miles long, and seventy broad, and lies at almost an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess ; and, during the time of the crusades, was a rich flourishing kingdom, in

habited by Christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable and the richest of all produced in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, in the midst of the country, and the see of a Greek archbishop; indeed, most part of the inhabitants of the island are Greeks. Famagusta, the ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to an extreme degree, so that the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250*l.* a year. The island produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made; and also cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, silk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their ancestors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that ancient seat of pleasure and corruption, is one of the divisions of the island. Richard I, king of England, subdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan, king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who long held that empty honour.

ARABIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	1400	between	36 and 60 East longitude.	700,000
Breadth	1260		12 and 32 North latitude.	

NAME....It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its ancient name. The word Arab, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or freebooter. The word Saracen, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians; for they seldom let any merchandise pass through the country without extorting something from the owners, if they do not rob them.

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by Turkey, on the north; by the gulfs of Persia or Bassorah, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, south; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, N. W.		
2. Arabia Deserta in the middle	Neged	
	Neged Proper	Imama Salemia
	Hedjaz	MECCA, E. lon. 41° 0' N. lat. 21° 40' Medina
3. Arabia Felix, S. W. S. & S. E.	Hadramaut	Hadramaut Dofar
	Yemen	SAANA, E. lon. 46° 35' N. lat. 17° 28' Mocha, E. lon. 44° 25' N. lat. 14° 0'
	Oman	Rostack Muscat
	Lachsa, Hadjar or Bahrein	Lachsa

MOUNTAINS...The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, east of the Red Sea, and those called Gibel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

RIVERS, SEAS, GULFS, AND CAPES....There are few springs or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Musledon.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE....As a considerable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix, the air is excessively dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot poisonous winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains, by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here (says Dr. Shaw) are no pastures clothed with flocks, nor vallies standing thick with corn; here are no vine-yards or olive-yards; but the whole is a lonesome, desolate wilderness, no other ways diversified than by plains covered with sand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day-time. But the southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea-coast, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamom, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a small quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, which last are found scarcely any where in such perfection as here and in Persia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS....The most useful animals in Arabia are camels, and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence for traversing the dry and parched deserts of this country; for they are so formed that they can throw up the liquor from their stomachs into their throats, by which means they can travel six or eight days without water. The camels usually carry 800 lbs. weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to rest, and in due time rise with their load. The dromedary is a small camel, with two bunches on its back, and remarkably swift. It is an observation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will smell at a distance and set up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horses are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of those in England. They are only fit for the saddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their swiftness and high mettle. The finest breed is in the kingdom of Yemen, in which Mocha is situated.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES....The deserts, mountains, and places mentioned in Scripture may be considered as the principal of these. What is called the Desert of Sinai is a beautiful plain near nine miles long, and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-east, but to the southward is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain as to divide it into two parts, each so capacious as to be sufficient to receive the whole camp of the Israelites.

From Mount Sinai may be seen Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning bush.

On those mountains are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jerusalem, pretend to show the very spot where every miracle or transaction recorded in Scripture happened.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DRESS....The Arabians, like most of the nations of Asia, are of a middle stature, thin, and of a swarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, and are said to be, in general, a martial, brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire-arms, good marksmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds.

The Arabians, in general, are such thieves, that travellers and pilgrims are struck with terror on approaching the deserts. These robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, and assault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, so late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 persons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army. On the sea-coast they are mere pirates, and make prize of every vessel they can master, of whatever nation.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, tied about them with a white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vest of furs or sheep-skins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almost naked; but, as in the eastern countries, the women are so wrapped up that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mahommedans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh, except that of hogs; and prefer the flesh of camels, as we prefer venison to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and like them refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee and tea, water and sherbet made of oranges, water and sugar, is their usual drink: they have no strong liquors.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES....Among the cities of Arabia Felix, Mecca and Medina deserve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahommed, is a mosque, the most magnificent of any in the Turkish dominions; its lofty roof being raised in fashion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers, at the end of extraordinary height and architecture, which make a delightful appearance, and are conspicuous at a great distance. The mosque has a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the finest gildings and tapestry. The number of pilgrims who yearly visit this place is almost incredible, every Mussulman being required, by his religion, to come hither once in his life-time, or send a deputy. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahommed fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and where he was buried, is a stately mosque supported by 400 pillars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the "Most Holy," by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahommed, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue, which the pasha of Egypt, by order of the grand seignor, renews every year. The camel which carries it derives a sort of sanctity from it, and is never to be used in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden crescent, curiously wrought, and adorned with precious

stones. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

The other principal cities of Arabia are Saana, Mocha, Jedda, or Juddah, Muscat, and Lachsa. Saana is considered as the capital of Arabia Felix. It has a castle, and contains a number of mosques and other elegant buildings. It is about four miles in circumference, and surrounded by a brick wall with seven gates. The environs produce abundance of fine grapes, of above twenty different species, and great quantities of dried raisins are exported from this city.

Mocha is well built; the houses are very lofty, and are, with the walls and forts, covered with a chinam or stucco, that gives a dazzling whiteness to them. The harbour is semicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles. and there are several handsome mosques in the city. Juddah is the place of the greatest trade in the Red Sea; for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets, and is interchanged, the former sending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe come cloths, iron, furs, and other articles, by the way of Cairo. The revenues of these, with the profits of the port, are shared by the grand seignor and the sheriff of Mecca, to whom jointly this place belongs.

Muscat is a considerable town, with an excellent harbour, and has been, from early times, a staple of trade between Arabia, Persia, and the Indies. It was taken by the Portuguese in 1508, and held by them during a century and a half. English ships from Hindoostan carry on a trade with this town.

Lachsa is a large and well built town, situate on a rapid stream, which falls into a large bay opposite to the isle of Bahrein, celebrated for the pearl fishery.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS.... Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are styled xeriffs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the caliphs of the Saracens, the successors of Mahommed. These monarchs appear to be absolute, both in spirituals and temporals; the succession is hereditary, and they have no other laws than those found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe subjection to the Turks, and are governed by pashas residing among them; but receive large gratuities from the grand seignor, for protecting the pilgrims that pass through their country, from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no standing regular militia, but their emirs command both the persons and the purses of their subjects, as the necessity of affairs requires.

RELIGION.... Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mahommed their countryman. Many of the wandering Arabs are still little different from Pagans; but in general they profess Mahommedanism.

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.... Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language used in the three Arabias is the Arabesk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the East accounted the richest, most energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin are amongst Europeans,

and used by Mahomedans in their worship: for, as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other; they look upon it to have been the language of Paradise, and think no man can be a master of it without a miracle, as consisting of several millions of words. The books which treat of it say they have no fewer than a thousand terms to express the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*. But among these are reckoned the metaphorical expressions and images of their poets. The Lord's prayer in Arabic is as follows:

Abuna elladhi fi-ssawat; jetkaddas esmâc; tati malacutac: taouri masebiatic, cama fi-ssama; kedhalec ala lardh aating chobzena kefatna iaum beiaum; wagsor lena donubena wachataina, cama nog for nachna lemen aca doina; wala tadalchalna fihajarib; laken mejjina me nnescherir. Amen.

HISTORY.... The history of this country in some measure differs from that of all others; for, as the slavery and subjection of other nations make a great part of their history that of the Arabs is entirely composed of their conquests, or independence. The Arabs are descended from Ishmael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they should be invincible, "have their hands against every man, and every man's hands against theirs." They are at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Towards the north, and the sea-coasts of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the southern and inland parts acknowledge themselves the subjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harass and annoy all strangers who come into their country. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion, began with one man, whose character forms a very singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mahommed, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia, which, from the luxuriancy of its soil and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been esteemed the loveliest and most delightful region of the world, and distinguished by the epithet of the Happy.

Mahommed was born in the year 569, in the reign of Justinian II, emperor of Constantinople. Though descended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, he was endued with a subtle genius, like those of the same country, and possessed a degree of enterprise and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed in the early part of his life, by his uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow, Khadija, and by her means came to be possessed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the East, he had observed the vast variety of sects in religion, whose hatred against each other was strong and inveterate, while at the same time, there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully took advantage of these; by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure, passions universal among men, he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been established. In this design he was assisted by Sergius, a monk, whose libertine disposition had made him for-

sake his cloister and profession, and engage in the service of Khadija, with whom he remained as a domestic when Mahommed was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified, by his great learning, for supplying the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, must have obstructed the execution of his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they proposed to establish should have a divine sanction; and for this purpose Mahommed turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often subject to fits of the epilepsy, a disease which those whom it afflicts are desirous to conceal. Mahommed gave out, therefore, that these fits were trances into which he was miraculously thrown by God Almighty, during which he was instructed in his will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by leading a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers and the enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by travelling into distant lands, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that the system he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the eastern countries were at this time much addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jesus Christ was co-equal with God the Father, as is declared in the Athanasian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into these corners of the world from the persecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of these countries were pagans. These, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and, like men whose religious principle is weak, had given themselves over to pleasure and sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, to be the better able to indulge in the gratifications of sense, which, together with the doctrine of predestination, composed the sole principles of their religion and philosophy. The system of Mahommed was exactly suited to these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most eminent: but the endeavours of these had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now sent his last and greatest prophet, with a commission more ample than what Moses or Christ had been intrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end, to establish a kingdom upon earth, which should propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had designed utter ruin and destruction to those who should refuse to submit to him; but to his faithful followers he had given the spoils and possessions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments, especially those of love; that the pleasures of such as died in propagating the faith would be peculiarly intense; and vastly transcend those of the rest.

These, together with the prohibition of drinking strong liquors (a restraint not very severe in warm climates) and the doctrine of predestination were the capital articles of Mahommed's creed. They were no sooner published, than a great number of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the priest before mentioned, and compose a book called the Koran, or Alkoran, by way of eminence, as we say the Bible, which means the Book. The person of Mahommed, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; so that the greater part of them were sufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a design to cut him off; but Mahommed, getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Tahmachi, or the City of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to custom, greatest at a distance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622d year of Christ, the fifty fourth year of Mahommed's age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers, the Mahommedans compute their time; and the æra is called in Arabic, Hegira, or Hejira, i. e. the Flight.

Mahommed, by the assistance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his insinuation and address daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at least to an acquiescence, in his doctrines. The speedy propagation of his system among the Arabians was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and the East, who were previously disposed to it. Arians, Jews and Gentiles, all forsook their ancient faith, and became Mahommedans. In a word, the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and Mahommed, from a deceitful hypocrite, became a powerful monarch. He was proclaimed king at Medina, in the year 627; and, after subduing part of Arabia and Syria, died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed divine among their subjects. These were the caliphs of Persia and of Egypt, under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of these turned their arms to the East, and made conquests of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and, under the name of Saracens or Moors (which they obtained because they entered Europe from Mauritania, in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced the greater part of Spain, France, Italy, and the islands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the successors of that imposter spread their religion and conquests over the greatest part of Asia, Africa, and Europe; and they still give law to a very considerable portion of mankind.

PERSIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	1300	} between	45 and 70	East longitude.	800,000.
Breadth	1050		25 and 40		

NAME....Persia, according to the poets, derived its name from Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danaë. Less fabulous authors suppose it derived from Paras, Pars, or Fars, which signify a horseman; the Persians and Parthians being always celebrated for their skill in horsemanship.

BOUNDARIES....Modern Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghistan, which divide it from Circassia and Georgia, on the north-west; by the Caspian sea, which divides it from Russia, on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Usbec Tartary, on the north-east; by India, on the east; by the Indian ocean, and the gulfs of Persia and Ormus, on the south; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the west.

DIVISIONS....This kingdom contains the following provinces:

Provinces.	Ancient Names.	Chief Towns.
Farsistan	Persis, or Persia propria	Shirauz
Irac Agemi	Media	Ispahan
Aderbeitzan	Media Atropatena	Tauris
Khusistan	Susiana	Suster
Mazanderan	Margiana	Ferabad
Khorasan	Margiana and Aria	Herat
Ghilan	Gela	Reshd
Sablestan	Bactriana	Bost
Schirvan	Albania	Schamakie
Segestan	Arachosia	Zareng
Mekran	Gedrosia	Kidge
Laristan	Lar
Kerman	Caramania	Kerman

MOUNTAINS....These are Caucasus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghistan; and the vast chain of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions, which run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

RIVERS....It has been observed, that no country, of so great an extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. The most considerable are the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes; which rise in or near the mountains of Ararat, and, joining their streams, fall into the Caspian sea. Some small rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their streams are so inconsiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even by boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia from Usbec Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the west.

The want of rivers in Persia occasions a scarcity of water: but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, and canals.

METALS AND MINERALS....Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all turquoise-stones, which are found in Khorasan. Sulphur, saltpetre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble have also been discovered near Tauris.

CLIMATE....Those parts of Persia which border upon Caucasus and Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of these mountains, which are commonly covered with snow. The air in the midland provinces of Persia is serene, pure, and exhilarating; but in the southern provinces it is hot, and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the midland parts, which are so often mortal that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

SOIL, VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS....The soil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caspian sea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the country abounds in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life. It produces oil in plenty, senna, rhubarb, and the finest drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially the dates, oranges, pistachio nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden-stuff. Great quantities of excellent silk are likewise produced in this country, and the gulf of Bassorah formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Ispahan especially, produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, particularly roses, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia are of a most exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as much perfection as some nations in Europe, by transplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian assafoetida flows from a plant called hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

No place in the world produces the necessities of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shirauz; nor is there a more delightful spot in nature to be conceived, than the vale in which it is situate, either for the salubrity of the air, or for the profusion of every thing necessary to render life comfortable and agreeable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat and barley, which they generally begin to reap in the month of May, and by the middle of July the harvest is completed. Most of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them are superior in size and flavour to what can be raised in Europe, particularly the apricot and grape. Of the grape of Shirauz there are several sorts, all of them very good, but two or three more particularly so than the rest: one is the large white grape, which is extremely luscious and agreeable to the taste; the small white grape, as sweet as sugar; and the black grape, of which the celebrated wine of Shirauz is made, which is really delicious, and well deserving of praise. It is pressed by the Armenians and Jews, in the months of October and November, and a great quantity is exported annually to Abu Shehr, and other parts in the Persian gulf, for supplying the Indian markets. The pomegranate is good to a proverb; the Persians call it the fruit of Paradise.

ANIMALS....The breed of horses in the province of Fars is at present very indifferent, owing to the ruinous state of the country; but in the

district of *Dushtistaan*, lying to the south-west, it is remarkably good. The sheep are of a superior flavour, owing to the excellence of the pasturage in the neighbourhood of *Shirauz*, and are also celebrated for the fineness of their fleece: "they have tails of an extraordinary size, some of which I have seen weigh," says Mr. Francklin, "upwards of thirty pounds; but those which are sold in the markets do not weigh above six or seven. Their oxen are large and strong, but their flesh is seldom eaten by the natives, who confine themselves chiefly to that of sheep and fowls."

NATURAL CURIOSITIES....The baths near *Gombroon* are medicinal, and esteemed among the natural curiosities of Persia. The springs of the famous *Naptha*, near *Baku*, are mentioned often in natural history for their surprising qualities; but the chief of the natural curiosities in this country is the burning phænomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of religion.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS....It is impossible to speak with any certainty concerning the population of a country so little known as that of Persia. If we are to judge by the vast armies, in modern as well as in ancient times, raised there, the numbers it contains must be very great. The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome; the men being fond of marrying Georgian and Circassian women. Their complexions towards the south are somewhat swarthy. The men shave their heads, but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; and religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them cost twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, so that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of respect even to the king. Their dress is very simple. Next to their skin they wear calico shirts, over them a vest, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash, and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are commonly very expensive, consisting of the richest furs, silks, muslins, cottons, and the like valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear a kind of loose boots on their legs, and slippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their sash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open; so that their dress upon the whole is far better adapted for the purpose both of health and activity than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dress of the women, as well as that of the men, is very costly; and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and washes.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent ablutions, which are the more necessary as they seldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner upon fruits, sweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repasts cakes of rice and others of wheat flour; and as they esteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat after it is dressed, these cakes are made thin, that they may be easily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton or fowls, is so prepared that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is set in order before them, they eat fast, and without any ceremony. But it is observed by a late traveller, that when the oldest man in the company speaks, though he be poor, and sit at the lower end of the

room, they all give a strict attention to his words. They are temperate, but use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They use great ceremony towards their superiors, and politely accommodate Europeans who visit them, with stools, that they may not be forced to sit cross-legged. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, which they smoke through a tube fixed in water, so as to be cool in the mouth, that, when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country, rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Persians are naturally fond of poetry, moral sentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and the national revolutions, have mingled the native Persians with barbarous nations, and are said to have taught them dissimulation; but they are still pleasing and plausible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for hospitality. The great foible of the Persians seems to be ostentation in their equipages and dresses: nor are they less jealous of their women than the Turks and other eastern nations. They are fond of music, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies: but their chief diversions are those of the field, hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms; in all which they are very dexterous. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beasts; and privately play at games of chance.

There are places in Shirauz, Mr. Francklin observes, distinguished by the name of Zoor Khana, the house of strength, or exercise, to which the Persians resort for the purpose of exercising themselves. These houses consist of one room, with the floor sunk about two feet below the surface of the earth, and the light and air are admitted to the apartment by means of several small perforated apertures made in the dome. In the centre is a large square terrace of earth, well beaten down, smooth and even; and on each side are small alcoves, raised about two feet above the terrace, where the musicians and spectators are seated. When all the competitors are assembled, which is on every Friday morning by day break, they immediately strip themselves to the waist; on which each man puts on a pair of thick woollen drawers, and takes in his hands two wooden clubs, of about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the shape of a pear: these they rest upon their shoulders; and the music striking up, they move them backwards and forwards with great agility, stamping with their feet at the same time, and straining every nerve, till they produce a very profuse perspiration. After continuing this exercise about half an hour, upon a signal given, they all leave off, quit their clubs, and, joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briskly in unison with the music, which is all the while playing a lively tune. Having continued this exercise for some time, they commence wrestling; in which the master of the house is always the challenger, and, being accustomed to the exercise, generally proves conqueror. The spectators pay each a shahee in money, equal to three-pence English, for which they are refreshed with a calean to smoke, and coffee. This mode of exercise must contribute to health, as well as add strength, vigour, and a manly appearance to the frame. It seems to bear some resemblance to the gymnastic exercises of the ancients.

The Persians, with respect to outward behaviour, are certainly

the most polished people of the East. While a rude and insolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turkish nation towards foreigners and Christians, the behaviour of the Persians would, on the contrary, do honour to the most civilized nations. They are kind, courteous, civil, and obliging to all strangers, without being guided by those religious prejudices so very prevalent in every other Mahomedan nation; they are fond of inquiring after the manners and customs of Europe; and, in return, very readily afford any information in respect to their own country. The practice of hospitality is with them so grand a point, that a man thinks himself highly honoured if you will enter his house and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a house without smoking a cafean, or taking any other refreshment, is deemed, in Persia, a high affront; they say that every meal a stranger partakes with them brings a blessing upon the house.

The Persians, in their conversation, use extravagant and hyperbolical compliments on the most trifling occasions. This mode of address, which in fact means nothing, is observed not only by those of a higher rank, but even amongst the meanest artificers, the lowest of whom will make no scruple, on your arrival, to offer you the city of Shirauz and all its appurtenances, as a peishkush, or present. This behaviour appears at first very remarkable to Europeans, but after a short time becomes equally familiar. Freedom of conversation is a thing totally unknown in Persia, as, that *walls have ears*, is proverbially in the mouth of every one. The fear of chains which bind their bodies has also enslaved their minds; and their conversation to men of superior rank to themselves is marked with signs of the most abject and slavish submission; while, on the contrary, they are as haughty and overbearing to their inferiors.

In their conversation the Persians aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verses and passages from the works of their most favourite poets, Hafez, Sadi, and Jami; a practice universally prevalent from the highest to the lowest; because those who have not the advantage of reading or writing, or the other benefits arising from education, by the help of their memories, which are very retentive of whatever they have heard, are always ready to bear their part in conversation. They also delight much in jokes and quaint expressions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they sometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much to be admired in their conversations, which is the strict attention they always pay to the person speaking, whom they never interrupt on any account. They are in general a personable, and in many respects a handsome people; their complexions, except those who are exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, are as fair as Europeans.

The brightness and sparkling in the eyes of the women, a very striking beauty, are in a great measure owing to art, as they rub their eye-brows and eye lids with the black powder of antimony, called surma, which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural lustre.

MARRIAGES.—When the parents of a young man have determined upon marrying him, they look out among their kindred and acquaintance for a suitable match; they then go to the house where the female they intend to demand lives. If the father of the woman approves, he immediately orders sweetmeats to be brought in; which is taken as a direct sign of compliance. After this the usual presents on the part of the bridegroom are made, which, if the person be in middling

circumstances, generally consist of two complete suits of apparel, of the best sort, a ring, a looking-glass, and a small sum in ready money, of about ten or twelve toman, which is to provide for the wife in case of a divorce. There is also provided a quantity of household stuff of all sorts, such as carpets, mats, bedding, utensils for dressing victuals, &c. The contract is witnessed by the *cadi*, or magistrate. The wedding-night being come, the bride is brought forth, covered from head to foot in a veil of red silk, or painted muslin; a horse is then presented for her to mount, which is sent expressly by the bridegroom; and when she is mounted, a large looking-glass is held before her by one of the bride-maids, all the way to the house of her husband, as an admonition to her, that it is the last time she will look into the glass as a virgin, being now about to enter into the cares of the married state. The procession then sets forward in the following order: first, the music and dancing-girls, after which the presents in trays borne upon men's shoulders; next come the relations and friends of the bridegroom, all shouting and making a great noise; who are followed by the bride herself, surrounded by all her female friends and relations, one of whom leads the horse by the bridle, and several others on horseback close the procession. Rejoicings upon this occasion generally continue eight or ten days. Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Persia, as well as through all Tartary; and all travellers or merchants, who intend to stay some time in any city, commonly apply to the *cadi*, or judge, for a wife during the time he proposes to stay. The *cadi*, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honest, and free from diseases; and he becomes surety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Russian embassy to Persia, declares, that amongst thousands, there has not been one instance of their dishonesty during the time agreed upon.

FUNERALS.... The funerals of the Persians are conducted in a manner similar to those in other Mahomedan countries. On the death of a Mussulman, the relations and friends of the deceased, being assembled, make loud lamentations over the corpse; after which it is washed, laid out on a bier, and carried to the place of interment without the city walls, attended by a mullah, or priest, who chants passages from the Koran all the way to the grave. If any Mussulman should chance to meet the corpse during the procession, he is obliged, by the precepts of his religion, to run up to the bier, and offer his assistance in carrying it to the grave, crying out at the same time, *Lah Illah! Ill Lillah!* There is no God, but God. After interment, the relations of the deceased return home, and the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey, and spices, which they eat in memory of the deceased; sending a part of it to their friends and acquaintance, that they may also pay him a like honour. This custom seems to be derived from very great antiquity, as we read in Homer of sacrifices and libations being frequently made to the memory of departed souls.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.... Ispahan or Spahawn, the capital of Persia, is seated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with water. It is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houses, where they spend their summer evenings; and different families associate together. The royal square is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth; and we are told, that the royal palace,

with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Ispahan 160 mosques, 1800 caravanserais, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine squares, streets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to shade and better accommodate the people. This capital is said formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars; so that we may easily suppose that it has lost great part of its ancient magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houses were inhabited.

Shirauz lies about 225 miles to the south-east of Ispahan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers and fruits of which are incomparable. The wines of Shirauz are reckoned the best of any in Persia. The town is the capital of Farsistan, or Persia Proper, and has a college for the study of eastern learning. It contains an uncommon number of mosques, and is adorned by many noble buildings; but its streets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houses are inhabited. Shirauz has many good bazars and caravanserais; that distinguished by the appellation of the Vakeel's bazar (so called from its being built by Kherim Khan) is by far the handsomest. It is a long street, extending about a quarter of a mile, built entirely of brick, and roofed something in the style of the piazzas in Covent-garden; it is lofty and well made; on each side are the shops of the tradesmen, merchants, and others, in which are exposed for sale a variety of goods of all kinds; these shops are the property of the Khan, and are rented to the merchants at a very easy monthly rate. Leading out of this bazar is a spacious caravanserai, of an octagon form, built of brick, the entrance through a handsome arched gateway; in the centre is a place for the baggage and merchandise, and on the sides, above and below, commodious apartments for the merchants and travellers; these are also rented at a moderate monthly sum. About the centre of the above-mentioned bazar, is another spacious caravanserai of a square form, the front of which is ornamented with a blue and white enamelled work, in order to represent China-ware, and has a pleasing effect to the eye.

The city of Shirauz is adorned, according to Mr. Francklin, with many fine mosques, particularly that built by the late Kherim Khan, which is a noble one. Being very well disguised, says our traveller, in my Persian dress, I had an opportunity of entering the building unobserved. It is of a square form; in the centre is a stone reservoir of water, made for performing the necessary ablutions, previous to prayer; on the four sides of the building are arched apartments allotted for devotion, some of the fronts of which are covered with China tiles; but Kherim Khan dying before the work was completed, the remainder has been made up with a blue and white enamelled work. Within the apartments, on the walls on each side, are engraven various sentences from the Koran, in the Nushki character; and at the upper end of the square is a large dome, with a cupola at top, which is the particular place appropriated for the devotion of the vakeel; or for the sovereign: this is lined throughout with white marble, ornamented with the curious blue and gold artificial lapis lazuli, and has three large silver lamps suspended from the roof of the dome. In the centre of the city is another mosque, which the Persians call the Musjidi Noó, or the New Mosque, but its date is nearly coeval with the city it-

self; at least, since it has been inhabited by Mahommedans. It is a square building, of a noble size, and has apartments for prayer on each side; in them are many inscriptions in the old Cufic character, which of themselves denote the antiquity of the place.

Provisions of all kinds are very cheap in this city; and the neighbouring mountains affording an ample supply of snow throughout the year, the meanest artificer of Shirauz may have his water and fruits cooled without any expense worthy consideration. This snow being gathered on the tops of the mountains, and brought in carts to the city, is sold in the markets. The price of provisions is regulated in Shirauz, with the greatest exactness, by the *d roga*, or judge of the police, who sets a fixed price upon every article; and no shop-keeper dares to demand more, under the severe penalty of losing his nose and ears.

The police in Shirauz, as well as all over Persia, is very strict. At sunset, the gates of the city are shut: no person whatever is permitted either to come in or go out during the night; the keys of the different gates being always sent to the hakim or governor, and remaining with him until morning. During the night, three tablas or drums, are beaten at three different times; the first at eight o'clock, the second at nine, and the third at half past ten. After the third tabla has sounded, all persons whatsoever found in the streets by the *daroga*, or judge of the police, or by any of his people, are instantly taken up, and conveyed to a place of confinement, where they are detained until next morning, when they are carried before the hakim; and if they cannot give a very good account of themselves, are punished, either by the *bastinado* or a fine.

The houses of men of quality in Persia are in the same taste with those of the Asiatic Turks already described. They are seldom above one story high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houses being built apart. Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly consists of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which serve them likewise as coverlets, with carpets under them.

Tauris, or Tebriz, the chief city of Aderbeitzan, was formerly the capital of Persia, and is said to contain 300 caravanserais, or inns, and 250 mosques. The number of inhabitants was estimated by Chardin at 550,000, besides a multitude of strangers, who resorted thither from all parts of Asia. The bazars, or market-places, are particularly grand and spacious; and it is said that the great square has held 30,000 men drawn up in order of battle. The finest Persian turbans are made in this city; and its trade, which is very great in cloth, cotton, silks, gold and silver brocades, and shagreen leather, extends not only over all Persia, but into Turkey, Russia, Tartary, and the East Indies.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Persian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The English, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Persians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans, which set out from various inland cities of Asia, under the convoy of guards.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE....The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world in silk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in these join fancy, taste, and elegance

to richness, neatness and show; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dyeing excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse-furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists; which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. Their jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsy workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpressible disadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often engross either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That with the English and other nations, by the Gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. The great scheme of the English in trading with the Persians through Russia promised great advantages to both nations, but it answered the expectations of neither. The court of Petersburg probably is not fond of suffering the English to establish themselves upon the Caspian Sea, the navigation of which is now possessed by the Russians. The Caspian Sea is about 680 miles long, and 260 broad in the widest part; it has no tide, but is navigable by vessels drawing from nine to ten feet water, with several good ports. The Russian ports are Kislar and Gurief. Derbent and Niezabad belong to Persia, as also Einzeltee and Astrabad, with Baku, the most commodious haven in this sea, and which has a fortress surrounded with high walls. As the manufactures and silk of Ghilan are esteemed the best in Persia, Reschd on the Caspian is one of the first commercial towns in this part of Asia, and supplies the bordering provinces with European merchandise.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS....These are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a despotic and often capricious monarch. The Persians, however, had some fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualification for the royal succession. In other respects the king's will was a law for the people. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised by the Mahommedan kings of Persia are almost incredible, especially during the last two centuries. The reason given to the Christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their most celebrated princes, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility, so that the respect due to every man on account of his high station expires with himself. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

The laws of Persia, where the will of the sovereign does not interfere, are, like those of other Mahommedan countries, founded on the Koran. Civil matters are all determined by the cazi, and ecclesiastical

tical ones, (particularly divorces) by the sheik al sellaum, or head of the faith, an office answering to that of mufti in Turkey. Justice is administered in Persia in a very summary manner; the sentence, whatever it may be, being always put into execution on the spot. Theft is generally punished with the loss of nose and ears; robbing on the road, by ripping up the belly of the criminal, in which situation he is exposed upon a gibbet in one of the most public parts of the city, and there left until he expires in torment; a dreadful punishment, but it renders robberies in Persia very uncommon. The punishments in this country are so varied and cruel, that humanity shudders at them.

REVENUES....The king claims one-third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No rank or condition of Persians is exempted from severe taxations and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expenses of the court, king's household, and great officers of state. The water that is let into fields and gardens is subject to a tax; and foreigners, who are not Mahommedans, pay each a ducat a head.

MILITARY FORCE....This consisted formerly of cavalry and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raised bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought into the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000: but, according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited in case of a defeat. The Persians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war, until Kouli Khan built some armed vessels; but since his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ARMS AND TITLES....The arms of the Persian monarch are a lion couchant, looking at the rising sun. His title is Shah, or Sovereign; Khan, and Sultan, which he assumes likewise, are Tartar titles. To acts of state the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name; but the grant runs in this manner: "This act is given by him whom the universe obeys."

RELIGION....The Persians are Mahommedans of the sect of Ali; for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Omar and Abu Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if possible, in some things more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with some Brahmin superstitions. A comparison may be made between the Brahmins and the Persian Guebres, or Gaurs, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient Magi, the followers of Zoroaster. That both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be easily proved: but the Indian Brahmins and Persees accuse the Gaurs, who still worship the fire, of having sensualized those ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combustible ground, about ten miles distant from Baku, a city in the north of Persia, is the scene of the devotions of the Guebres. This ground is impregnated with inflammatory substances, and contains several old little temples; in one of which the Guebres pretend to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire, which rises from the end of a large hollow cane stuck into the ground, resembling a lamp burning with very pure spirits. The Mahommedans are the declared enemies of the Gaurs;

who were banished out of Persia by Shah Abbas. Their sect, however, is said to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans seem early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many sects are found that evidently have Christianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called Sousees, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sabean Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahommedanism; and are numerous towards the Persian gulf. The Armenian and Georgian Christians are very numerous in Persia.

The Persians observe the fast during the month of Ramazan (the 9th month of the Mahommedan year) with great strictness and severity. About an hour before day-light they eat a meal, which is called Sehre, and from that time until the next evening at sunset they neither eat nor drink of any thing whatever. If, in the course of the day, the smoke of a calean, or the smallest drop of water should reach their lips, the fast is in consequence deemed broken and of no avail. From sunset until the next morning they are allowed to refresh themselves. This fast, when the month Ramazan falls in the middle of summer, as it sometimes must do (the Mahommedan year being lunar) is extremely severe, especially to those who are obliged by their occupation to go about during the day time; and is still rendered more so, as there are also several nights during its continuance which they are enjoined to spend in prayer. The Persians particularly observe two; the one being that in which their prophet Ali died, from a wound which he received from the hands of an assassin, three days before; which night is the 21st of Ramazan, the day of which is called by the natives the Day of Murder. The other is the night of the 23d, in which they affirm that the Koran was brought down from heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel, and delivered to their prophet Mahommed: wherefore it is denominated the Night of Power.

LITERATURE....The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for polite literature, and their poets renowned all over the east. There is a manuscript at Oxford, containing the lives of a hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets. Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated. The former comprised the history of Persia in a series of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are said by Mr. Jones to be "a glorious monument of eastern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Shirauz, and flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many elegant pieces both in prose and in verse. Shemseddin was one of the most eminent lyric poets that Asia has produced; and Nakhsheb wrote in Persian a book called the Tales of a Parrot, not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a most animated and elegant poet, who flourished in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whose beautiful compositions, on a great variety of subjects, are preserved at Oxford in twenty-two volumes. Hariri composed, in a rich, elegant, and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interspersed with a number of agreeable adventures, and several fine pieces of poetry.

Of the sprightly and voluptuous bard of Shirauz, the name and character are sufficiently known to orientalists. It may, however, excite the curiosity of the English reader, that the poet Hafez, here introduced to his notice, conciliated the favour of an offended emperor,

by the delicacy of his wit, and the elegance of his verses ; that the most powerful monarchs of the east sought in vain to draw him from the enjoyment of literary retirement, and to purchase the praises of his muse by all the honours and splendor of a court ; and that his works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of mystic piety to the superstitious Mahomedan ; the oracle which, like the *Sortes Virgilianæ*, determined the councils of the wise, and prognosticated the fate of armies and of states. Seventeen odes have already been translated into English by Mr. Not, with which he has published the originals, for the purpose of promoting the study of the Persian language. The 21st ode has also appeared in an English dress, by the elegant pen of sir William Jones.

The tomb of this celebrated and deservedly admired poet stands about two miles distant from the walls of the city of Shirauz on the north-east side. It is placed in a large garden, and under the shade of some cypress trees of extraordinary size and beauty ; it is composed of fine white marble from Tauris, eight feet in length and four in breadth. This was built by Kherim Khan, and covers the original one. On the top and sides of the tomb are select pieces from the poet's own works, most beautifully cut in the Persian Nustaleek character. During the spring and summer season the inhabitants visit here, and amuse themselves with smoking, playing at chess and other games, reading also the works of Hafez, who is in greater esteem with them than any other of their poets ; and they venerate him almost to adoration, never speaking of him but in the highest terms of rapture and enthusiasm. A most elegant copy of his works is kept upon the tomb, for the purpose, and the inspection of all who go there. The principal youth of the city assemble here ; and show every possible mark of respect for their favourite poet, making plentiful libations of the delicious wine of Shirauz to his memory. Close by the garden runs the stream of Rocnabad, so celebrated in the works of Hafez, and within a small distance is the sweet bower of Mosellay.

At present learning is at a very low ebb among the Persians. Their boasted skill in astronomy is now reduced to a mere smattering in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology ; so that no people in the world are more superstitious than the Persians. The learned profession in greatest esteem among them is that of medicine ; which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer ; which often defeats the ends of the prescriptions. It is said, however, that the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. The plague is but little known in this country ; and almost equally rare are many other diseases that are fatal in other places ; such as the gout, the stone, the small-pox, consumptions and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore pretty much circumscribed, and they are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief knowledge of it is in letting blood ; for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

LANGUAGE....The common people, especially towards the southern coasts of the Caspian sea, speak the Turkish and the Arabic ; probably introduced into Persia under the caliphate, when learning flourished in those countries. Many of the learned Persians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as a modish lan-

guage, as we do the French. The pure Persic is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian gulf, and in Ispahan; but many of the provinces speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other languages.

The Persians write like the Hebrews from the right to the left; are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuscripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible.

The Lord's prayer in Persian is as follows: *Ei Padere ma kib der osmoni; pac basched mām; tu bay ayed padeschabi tu; schwad chwaāste tu benzjunaaukib der osmon niz derzemin; bēh mara jmrouz nān kef af rowz mara; wadarguasar mara konāhon ma zjunaukihma viz mig sarim ormān mara; wador ozmajisch minedāzzmara; likin chalas kun mara ez efcherir. Amen.*

ANTIQUITIES.... The monuments of antiquity in Persia are more celebrated for their magnificence and expence, than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and composed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Persia but they are void of that elegance and beauty displayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Persia are stupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with sculptures. The chief of the modern monuments is a pillar to be seen at Ispahan, sixty feet high, consisting of the skulls of beasts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the suppression of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect such a column of human skulls; but, upon the submission of the rebels, he performed his vow by substituting those of brutes, each of the rebels furnishing one.

HISTORY... The Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian. Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Christ, and restored the Israelites who had been captive at Babylon to liberty. It ended in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander, 329 years before Christ. Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, whose descendants, in less than three centuries were conquered by the Romans. The latter, however, never fully subdued Persia; and the natives had princes of their own, from Arsaces, called Arsacides, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by the famous Timur-Leng, or Tamerlane, whose posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, the ancestor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be descended from Mahommed himself. His successors, from him sometimes called Sophis, though some of them were valiant and politic, proved in general to be a disgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and indolence, which brought them into such disrepute with their subjects, barbarous as they were, that Hussein, a prince of the Sefi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Thomas, the representative of the Sefi family, had escaped from the rebels, and, assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At last the secret ambition of the Nadir broke out; and after assuming the name

of Thamas Kouli Khan, pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, he rebelled against his sovereign, made him a prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

This usurper afterwards mounted the throne under the title of Shah Nadir. He made an expedition into Hindoostan, from which country he carried off an amazing booty in money, precious stones, and other valuables; but it has been remarked that he brought back an inconsiderable part of his plunder from India, losing great part of it upon his return by the Mahrattas and accidents. He next conquered Usbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghistan Tartars, whose country he found to be inaccessible. He vanquished the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to strike terror into all his subjects by the most cruel executions. His conduct became so intolerable, and particularly his attempt to change the religion of Persia to that of Omar, and strangling the chief priests who resisted, that it was thought his brain was disordered; and he was assassinated in his own tent, partly in self-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death started up; and it may naturally be supposed, that a chronological and accurate account of these various and rapid revolutions is very difficult to be obtained. The confusion which prevailed through the whole country, from the death of Nadir, until the settlement of Kerim Khan, prevented all attempts of literature, arts, and sciences. During this interval, the whole empire of Persia was in arms, and rent by commotions; different parties in different provinces of the kingdom struggling for power, and each endeavouring to render himself independent of the other, torrents of blood were shed, and the most shocking crimes were committed with impunity. The whole face of the country, from Gombroon to Russia, presents to the view thousands of instances of the misery and devastation which has been occasioned by these commotions.

From the accounts we have been able to collect, the number of pretenders to the throne of Persia, from the death of Nadir Shah until the final establishment of Kerim Khan's government, was no less than nine, including himself. Kerim Khan Zund was a most favourite officer of Nadir Shah, and at the time of his death was in the southern provinces; Shirauz and other places had declared for him. He found means, at last, after various encounters with doubtful success, completely to subdue all his rivals; and finally to establish himself as ruler of all Persia. He was in power about thirty years, the latter part of which he governed Persia under the appellation of vakeel, or regent; for he never would receive the title of Shah. He made Shirauz the chief city of his residence, in gratitude for the assistance he had received from its inhabitants, and those of the southern provinces. He died in the year 1779, in the eightieth year of his age, regretted by all his subjects, who esteemed and honoured him as the glory of Persia. His character is most deservedly celebrated for the public buildings which he erected, and the excellent police which he maintained; so that, during his whole reign, there was not in Shirauz a single riot productive of bloodshed; besides these merits, his aversion to severe punishments, his liberality and kindness to the poor, his toleration of people of different persuasions, his partiality for Europeans, and his encouragement of trade, together with his great military abilities and personal courage, rendered him not only beloved by his own subjects, but greatly respected by foreign powers.

After the death of Kerim Khan, his kinsman, Zikea, or Saki, seized the government, but on account of his cruelties was soon murdered by the soldiers, who raised Abul Futtah, the son of Kerim, to the throne. He was soon after deposed by his uncle Sadick, who was besieged in Shirauz, taken and put to death by Ali Murad, another relation of Kerim Khan's. A eunuch, however, of the name of Aga Mahmet, or Akau Mahommed Khan, refused to acknowledge the conqueror as sovereign. Ali Murad marched against him, but on his way died by a fall from his horse. Jaaffar Khan, who had been made governor of Kom by Ali Murad then assumed the regular authority, but being defeated by Akau, the latter retained possession of the provinces of Mazanderan and Ghilan, as well as the cities of Ispahan, Hamadan, and Tauris, where he was acknowledged as sovereign. Jaaffar Khan held possession of the city of Shirauz, and the provinces or districts of Beaboon and Shuster: he also received an annual present from the province of Carmania, and another from the city of Yezd: Abushehr and Lar also sent him tribute. The southern provinces are in general more fruitful than those to the northward, they not having been so frequently the scenes of action during the late revolutions.

In 1792, however, Akau Mahommed Khan assembled an army, and advanced against Jaaffar Khan, who was slain at Shirauz, in an insurrection; after which Akau became sole sovereign of Persia, except that part in the west included in the dominions of the Afghan sovereign of Cabul and Candahar.

Akau Mahommed Khan, in 1794, was about fifty-five years of age, tall in stature, but of a disagreeable countenance. He is said to possess great art and dissimulation, and equal avarice and ambition. Being a eunuch, he had nominated for his successor his nephew Baba Sendar.

INDIA WITHIN THE GANGES,

OR

HINDOOSTAN,

LATE THE EMPIRE OF THE GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	1890	} between	{	8 and 35 North latitude.	} 870,910.
Breadth	1550			67 and 92 East longitude.	

NAME....The name of India is derived from the river Indus, and is extended to all countries to the south of Tartary between that river and China. This region has been divided into India within, and India beyond the Ganges, the former comprehending the northern part of Hindoostan, and the southern improperly called the *peninsula*, or the Hither Peninsula; the latter, all the countries from the Ganges to the frontiers of China, with the peninsula of Malacca, or the Farther Peninsula.

The name of Hindoostan appears to be of uncertain derivation. It is not a native term, the Hindoos calling their country Bharata. It is supposed to have been given by the Persians, and to have a reference to the river Indus, or Sinde, with the Persian termination *stan*, signifying country. Mr. Fraser says, Hindoo signifies swarthy or black, and Hindoostan the country of the swarthy people.

BOUNDARIES....This extensive country is bounded on the north by Usbec Tartary and Tibet; on the east by Assam, Arracan, and the bay of Bengal; on the south by the Indian Ocean; and by the same ocean and by Persia on the west.

Grand Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	
Hindoostan Proper. Provinces to the N. E. and N. on the Ganges.	Bengal .	Calcutta, or Fort William Hoogly Dacca Moorshedabad.	} E. lon. 88° 29' N. lat. 22 35 English.
	Bahar . .	Patna.	
	Allahabad	Allahabad.	
	Oude . .	Lucknow.	
	Agra . .	Agra.	
	Delhi . .	Delhi. E. lon. 77° 40' N. lat. 29° 15'	
	Cabul . .	Cabul.	
	Candahar	Candahar.	
	Lahore .	Lahore.	
	Cashmere	Cashmere, or Serinagur.	
Provinces to the N. W. on the Indus.	Moultan .	Moultan.	
	Sinde . .	Tatta.	
	Agimere	Agimere.	
	Guzerat .	Ahmedabad, Cambac, Surat.	
	Malwa .	Ougein, Indore.	

Grand Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.			
The Decan,* or southern provinces of the Mogul empire.	Candeish	Burhanpour.			
	Berar	Nagpour.			
	Orissa	Cuttack.			
	Dowlatabad, or Ahmednagur	Aurungabad.			
	Visiapour, or Bejapour .		Visiapour.		
	Golconda, or Hyderabad .	Hydrabad.			
	The northern Circars .	Cicacole, Visigapatam. Rajamundry. Ellore. Condapilly, Masulipatam. Guntoor.			
			Pullicate, Dutch. Madras or Fort } E. 10. 80° 29' St. George } N. 1a. 13 5 Arcot. [Dutch. Sadras, or Sadraspatam, St. Thomas, Portuguese. Pondicherry, late French. Fort St. David, English. Porto Novo. Cuddalore. Devicotta. Coimbetore. Trichinopoly. Tranquebar, Danish.		
				Seringapatam. Bednore. Chitteldroog. Bengalore.	
					Tanjore Madura Tinevelly Travancore
Calicut	Cochin. Calicut. Tellicherry. Barcelore.				
		Canara	Onore. Goa, Portuguese. Severndroog. Gheriah.		
				The Concan	
					The Pirate coast.

The provinces of the Mogul empire were divided into circars, which were again subdivided into purgunnahs, the former of which may be compared to counties, and the latter to hundreds. The pro-

* This name Deccan signifies the South, and, in its most extensive signification, includes the whole peninsula south of Hindoostan Proper. However, in its ordinary signification, it means only the countries situated between Hindoostan Proper, the Carnatic, and Orissa; that is the provinces of Candeish, Berar, Ahmednagur, Hyderabad, Visiapour, and Orissa.

vinces are called soubahs, and the governors or viceroys over them soubahdars and navaubs, or nabobs.

PRESENT POLITICAL DIVISIONS....The invasion of the empire of Hindoostan by the celebrated Persian usurper, Nadir Shah (which has been mentioned in the history of Persia) so weakened the authority of the emperor, that the viceroys of the different provinces either threw off their allegiance, or acknowledged a very precarious dependence; and engaging in wars with each other, called in as allies the East India companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted, as traders, to form establishments on the coasts. These, from the great superiority of European discipline, from allies, became in a short time principals in an obstinate contest, that at length terminated in the expulsion of the French from Hindoostan; and thus a company of British merchants have acquired, partly by cessions from the country powers, and partly by conquest, territories equal in extent, and superior in wealth and population, to most of the kingdoms of Europe.

The Mahrattas originally possessed several provinces of Hindoostan, from whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors; they were never wholly subjected, but, retiring to the northern part of the Gauts, made frequent incursions from these inaccessible mountains: taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have extended their frontiers, and are at present possessed of a tract of country 1000 British miles long by 700 wide; besides the territory they acquired from that of Tippoo Sultan in 1792 and 1799.

Hyder Ally, a soldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war from the Europeans, having possessed himself of that part of the ancient Carnatic called the kingdom of Mysore, within a few years acquired, by continual conquests, a considerable portion of the southern part of the peninsula. This able and active prince, the most formidable enemy that the English ever experienced in Hindoostan, dying in 1783, left to his son Tippoo dominions superior in extent to the kingdom of England. Tippoo engaged in two wars with the English, in the former of which he lost a considerable part of his territories, and in the latter his life and the remainder of his dominions, which were divided between the British, the Nizam, and the Mahrattas.

In consequence of these revolutions, the present Mogul, Shah Aulum, the descendant of the great Timur, such is the instability of human greatness, is merely a nominal prince, of no importance in the politics of Hindoostan: he is permitted to reside at Delhi, which, with a small adjacent territory, is all that remains to him of that vast empire which his ancestors governed for more than 350 years.

The sovereignty of this great country is, therefore, now divided between the British, some nabobs or governors tributary to and dependent on them; the nizam, or soubahdar of the Deccan: the Mahrattas; some independent rajahs, or Hindoo princes; and, in the north, the Afghans and the Seiks.

The British territory consists of the soubahs, or provinces of Bengal and Bahar, the district of Benares, and part of the soubah of Orissa; the city and district of Cuttack and port of Balasore, lately ceded, after a short campaign, by the Mahratta chief Bounsla; the Dooab, or country between the Ganges and Jumna, ceded at the same time by Scindia; four of the five northern circars; the Jaghire, or territory

of Madras; the territories and ports of Cuddalore, Devicotta, and Negapatan; the island and city of Seringapatam; the late kingdom of Canara, and district of Coimbatore; and the island and fortress of Bombay on the gulf of Cambaya.

The extent of these territories is computed at above 213,000 square miles, or 100,000 more than are contained in the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; their population at nearly 14 millions of souls; and the revenue arising from them at above three millions and a half sterling.

The allies or rather tributaries of the British, are the Nabob of Oude, Azuph Dowla, whose chief cities are Lucknow and Fyzabad; and the Nabob of Arcot or of the Carnatic, Mahommed Ali, whose capital is Arcot, but who usually "resides at Chepauk, about a mile from Madras, in princely state, upon part of the possessions," says Mr. Pennant, "for which the English paid a fine to his predecessors, in acknowledgment of the original permission there to form their settlement." The small states of Tanjore, Madura, and Tinevelly, are dependent on the Nabob of Arcot, or rather on the English.

The original country of the Mahrattas was the province of Candeish and the district of Baglana, or the north-western part of Dowlatabad, in the Deccan. They extended their territory to the west and south along the sea-coast from Surat to Canara, through the narrow tract of land called the Concan. They are now divided into the Poonah or western, and the Berar or eastern Mahrattas. The Poonah Mahrattas possess the provinces of Candeish, Malwa, and Allahabad; and a great part of Agra, Agimere, Guzerat, Dowlatabad, and Visiapour; the Berar Mahrattas, the greater part of the provinces of Berar and Orissa. Their name is derived, by major Rennel, from a district called Marat; but even the existence of such a district is disputed. They are Hindoos, and not Mahommedans, and governed by different chiefs, the principal of whom are named Scindia, Holkar, and Bounsla. The chiefs of the Poonah Mahrattas pay a kind of nominal obedience to a head called the peishwa, though they often quarrel with him, and often among themselves, and never are united but by the apprehension of a common danger. The capital of the Poonah Mahrattas is Sattarah, where the rajah, the descendant of their founder Sevajee, is kept in a kind of splendid confinement; for the peishwa is supposed to be only his minister, and must receive his appointment from him. The seat of government of the peishwa, however is at Poonah, in which city centers the principal wealth of the Mahratta states; Scindia resides at Ougein; Holkar at Indoor; and Bounsla, the chief of the Berar Mahrattas, at Nagpour. The Mahratta chiefs, were they to act in concert, are, it is said, able to bring into the field above 200,000 horse, and 60,000 foot.

The possessions of the nizam or subahdar of the Deccan (a younger son of the famous Nizam-al-Muluck) comprise the province of Golconda, that is, the ancient province of Tellingana, or Tilling, situated between the lower parts of the Kistna and Godavery rivers, and the principal part of Dowlatabad; together with the western part of Berar, subject to a tribute of a chout, or fourth part of its net revenue to the Berar Mahratta. The nizam has the peishwa, or Poonah Mahratta, on the west and north-west; the Berar Mahratta on the north; the northern circars on the east; and the Carnatic and Mysore on the south. I am not perfectly clear (says major Rennell) in my idea of his western boundary, which, during his wars with the Mahrattas, was

subject to continual fluctuation ; but I understand generally that it extends more than 40 miles beyond the city of Aurungabad, westwards, and comes within 80 miles of the city of Poonah. His capital is Hydrabad, or Bagnagur, situated on the Moussi river.

The rajah of Mysore, the descendant of the rajah who was dispossessed by the usurper Hyder Ali, has, since the fall of Tippoo Sultan, been restored to the sovereignty of a great part of the Mysore under the protection of the British. Most of the other rajahs are dependent on some of the other great powers. One of the most wealthy and powerful of these rajahs is the Jyepoor rajah, the head of the rajpoots in Agimere, who is tributary to the Mahrattas, and, who, perhaps, is the prince most capable of effectually resisting their overgrown power, were he not of an inactive and effeminate character.

The north-western provinces of Hindoostan are possessed by the Abdallees and the Seiks. The Abdallees, also called Duranees, from the custom of wearing a pearl in one of their ears, are properly a sect or tribe of Afghans, or the inhabitants of the mountainous country in the north and west of Hindoostan, but the name seems to be applied to the Afghans in general. They possess a territory stretching from the mountains of Tartary to the Arabian Sea, and from the Indus to the confines of Persia. They are a robust hardy race of men ; and being generally addicted to a state of predatory warfare, their manners largely partake of a barbarous insolence, and they avow a fixed contempt for the occupations of civil life. The principal cities of Afghanistan are Candahar and Cabul, the former of which was the capital ; but the late and present sultans have kept their court at Cabul. About the year 1720 an army of Afghans invaded Persia, took Ispahan, and made the Shah Hussein prisoner. They kept possession of Ispahan and the southern provinces for ten years, when they were defeated in several battles, and driven out of the country, by Nadir Kuli, commonly known in Europe by the name of Kouli Khan. After Nadir had deposed his sovereign Shah Thamas, he besieged and took Candahar ; but afterwards received a considerable body of the Afghans into his service, who became his favourite foreign troops. On his assassination in 1747, Abdalli Ahmed Khan, the general of the Afghan troops, though furiously attacked by the whole Persian army, effected a safe retreat into his own country, where he caused himself to be acknowledged sovereign of the Afghan territories, by the title of Ahmed Shah. He was succeeded in 1773, by his son Timur Shah, and he by Zemaun Shah, the present sultan.

The Seiks are a powerful nation, consisting of several small independent states, connected by a kind of federal union. They possess the whole of Lahore, the principal part of Moultan, and the west part of Delhi. This tract extends 400 miles from north-west to south-east, and is from 150 to 200 broad ; though the part between Attock and Behker cannot be less than 320. The founder of their sect was named Nanock, and lived in the beginning of the sixteenth century. They are the descendants of his disciples ; the word *seiks*, in the Sanscrit language, signifying disciples. Their army consists almost entirely of horse, of which it is supposed they can bring 200,000 into the field. The Seiks are now become one of the most powerful states of Hindoostan. Their capital is Lahore.

MOUNTAINS....The chief mountains of Hindoostan are those of the northern chain, which separate this country from Tibet, and are called by the natives Himmala, or the mountains of snow, with which

they are constantly covered. They are the ancient Imaus, or Emodus, a branch of Caucasus. In southern Hindoostan the mountains called the Gauts (though this word properly signifies a pass in a mountain, and not a mountain) extend from the river of Surat to Cape Comorin. They are called the Ballaghaut, or upper Gauts, and the Payenghaut, or lower Gauts. They are in many places a mile and a quarter in height, overgrown with forests, and have their summits frequently covered with snow. At their termination, near Cape Comorin, they may be seen nine or ten leagues out at sea.

RIVERS, LAKES.... The Ganges (ganga or river, by way of eminence) is not only the principal river of Hindoostan, but one of the noblest in the world. It issues from Kentaisse, one of the vast mountains of Tibet, and after a course of about 750 miles through mountainous regions little known, enters Hindoostan at the defile of Kupele, supposed by the natives to be its source. From hence this great river, which the Hindoos hold in religious veneration, believing that its waters have a virtue which will purify them from every moral transgression, flows through delightful plains, with a smooth navigable stream from one to three miles wide, during the remainder of its course, which is about 1350 miles to the bay of Bengal, into which it falls by two large, and a multitude of smaller channels, that form and intersect a large triangular island, the base of which at the sea is near 200 miles in extent. The whole navigable course of this river, from its entrance into the plains of Hindoostan to the sea, and which, with its windings, extends, as has been observed, above thirteen hundred miles, is now possessed by the British, their allies and tributaries. The western branch, called the Little Ganges, or river of Hoogly, is navigable for large ships, and is generally resorted to. The Ganges receives eleven rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none inferior to the Thames.

The Burrampooter, or Brahmapooter, that is, the son of Brahma, is a river, the extent and importance of which was not ascertained till the year 1765. It is superior to the Ganges both in length of course and in size. It rises near the head of the latter river, in the mountains of Tibet, on the opposite side of the same ridge, and takes its course in a contrary direction, till it is 1200 miles distant from it, having proceeded to within about 200 miles of Yunan, the most western province of China, when it returns again, and joins the Ganges near the sea. During the last 60 miles, before its junction with the Ganges, it forms a stream, which is regularly from four to five miles wide. In Tibet it is called the Sanpoo, and when it joins the Ganges, the Megna.

The river Jumna is another considerable river in this part of Hindoostan: it rises in the mountains of Sirinagur, and pursuing a course nearly parallel to that of the Ganges for 500 miles, falls into the latter river at Allahabad.

The Indus, called by the natives Sindeh, is the boundary of India to the west, and gives name to the country. It derives its origin from ten streams springing remote from each other out of the Persian and Tartarian mountains, one of which originates in Cashmere. In its course to the Indian Sea, it receives five great rivers, the Behut, the ancient Hydaspes; the Chunab or ancient Acesinas; the Rauvee or Hydraotes; the Setlege or Hcsudrus; and a river on the west, the ancient Hyphasis. These rivers form the Panjab, or the country of the five rivers. The Indus is likewise called the Nilab,

or the Blue River, and the Attock. Its whole course is about 1000 miles.

In southern Hindoostan, the principal rivers are the Nerbudda, which falls into the Indian Sea, after a course of about 700 miles, and is considered as forming the northern boundary of the Deccan; the Godavery, which falls into the bay of Bengal, after a course of nearly the same extent: the Kistna or Kreeshna, which is the boundary of the Deccan to the south; and the Cavery or Cauvery, which surrounds the city and island of Seringapatam. The two latter rivers fall into the bay of Bengal, after a course of about 500 miles each.

METALS, MINERALS....The principal of the mineral productions of Hindoostan is that most valuable of gems the diamond, which is found chiefly in the provinces of Golconda and Visiapour, and also in that of Bengal. Raolconda in Visiapour, and Gandicotta, are famed for their mines, as is Coulour in Golconda. The diamond is generally found in the narrow crevices of the rocks, loose, and never adherent to the strong stratum. The miners make use of long iron rods, with hooks at the ends, and with these they pick out the contents of the fissures, and wash them in tubs in order to discover the diamonds. In Coulour they dig on a large plain to the depth of ten or fourteen feet; near sixty thousand people are employed, the men to dig, and the women and children to carry the earth to the places in which it is to be deposited before the search is made. Diamonds are also found in the gravel or sand of rivers, washed out of their beds, and carried down with the stream. The river Gonel, near Sumbulpour, is the most noted for them. Many other precious stones are found in this country; but there seem to be no mines, either of gold or silver, though particles of gold are found in some of the rivers in the northern parts of Bengal.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE....The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes: and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands, and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The English, and consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Hindoostan, are commonly seized with some illness, such as flux, or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

In the southern parts of Hindoostan, or what is called the Peninsula, the chain of mountains named the Gauts, running from north to south, render it winter on one side of the peninsula, while it is summer on the other. About the end of June a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rains, lasts four months, during which time all is serene upon the coasts of Coromandel (the western and eastern coasts being so denominated.) Towards the end of October the rainy season and the change of the monsoons begin on the Coromandel coast, which being destitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ships to remain there during that time; and to this is owing the periodical returns of English shipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coast. The air is naturally hot upon this peninsula, but it is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon, it blows off the land, when it is tolerably hot, and during the

other twelve hours from the sea, which last proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast.

The soil of this country is in many parts so excellent as to consist of black vegetable mould, to the depth of six feet. In Bengal the Ganges annually overflows the country to the extent of more than 100 miles in width, which inundation greatly fertilizes the land; and the periodical rains and intense heat produce an extraordinary luxuriance of vegetation, and render the arts of agriculture almost unnecessary. The lands, however, are tilled with very simple instruments, and the harvests gathered in by the ryots or peasants, who live in the utmost penury and wretchedness, and are allowed for their sustenance no other share of the rich produce of the soil, but some coarse rice, and a few pepper pods.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.... Large forests are found in various parts of this extensive country, and on the coasts of Malabar they consist of trees of a prodigious size. The teek-tree affords a strong and durable timber, which might be advantageously employed in ship-building; as teek ships of forty years old are not uncommon in the Indian seas, while a European built ship is ruined there in five years. The cocoa-tree is remarkable for its extensive utility: of the body or trunk the natives make boats and frames for their houses and rafters; they thatch their houses with the leaves, and by slitting them lengthwise, make mats and baskets. The nut affords food, drink, and a valuable oil. From the branches, when cut, exudes a liquor called toddy, from which fermented is distilled an excellent arrack. The Indian fig, likewise called the banyan, and the wonder-tree, is sometimes of an amazing size, as it is continually increasing: every branch proceeding from the trunk throws out long fibres, which take root in the earth, and shoot out new branches, which again throw out fibres that take root, and continue in this state of progression as long as they find soil to nourish them. Of fruit-bearing trees the number is very great, and the fruits delicious, especially pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, dates, almonds, mangoes, pine-apples, musk-melons, water-melons; and, in the northern parts, pears and apples.

Hindoostan produces almost every kind of grain, especially rice. Among other vegetables are cucumbers, radishes, carrots, yams, and sweet potatoes. The sugar-cane no where grows with greater vigour, or is more productive of its juice, or more capable of being manufactured into finer sugar, than in Bengal. Tobacco, which was introduced into this country about the year 1617, is now produced here in great quantities.

ANIMALS.... Of the wild animals of Hindoostan, the tyger, for his size and strength, may claim the first place; for lions, if there be any, are extremely rare. The royal tyger, as he is called, of Bengal, grows, it is said, to the height of five and six feet, with a proportionable length, and has such strength, that he can carry off a bullock or a buffaloe with ease. Elephants are very numerous and large. Here are also leopards, panthers, lynxes, hyenas, wolves, jackals, and foxes, with various species of apes and monkees, and many beautiful antelopes, particularly that large kind called the nil-ghau. Wild buffaloes are frequent here, which are very fierce, and have vast horns, that are sometimes known to grow to the length of ten feet. With respect to domestic animals, the cattle are generally of a large size, and the sheep are covered with hair instead of wool, except in the northern parts.

Among the birds are peacocks and various species of parrots and

parroquets. Poultry in a wild state are found in great numbers in most of the jungles or thickets of Hindoostan. The natives of this country, and indeed of almost every part of India, are extravagantly fond of cock-fighting, and pay greater attention to the training and feeding these birds than we ever did, even when that diversion was at its height.

The serpents of Hindoostan are very numerous, and some species of them are venomous in an extraordinary degree. At Bombay, and near Madras, a small snake is found which the Portuguese call *cobra de morte*; it is only from six to nine inches long, but from its bite death almost instantaneously ensues.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.... Among these may be enumerated the mountains which form the northern boundary between this country and Tibet, sometimes called the *Glacieres of India*, and which make the most majestic and awful appearance, even at the distance of 150 miles; the ice rises often into lofty spires on the grandest of scales, and the light sides appear stained in the most elegant manner with a roseate colour. At the *Gangontra*, or Fall of the Ganges, sometimes called the *Cow's Mouth*, that river, after having flowed through a subterraneous passage, again emerges. Two miles to the west of *Gocauk*, the *Gutpurba* river, where it is 169 yards broad, falls perpendicularly down 174 feet; a fall exceeding that of the famous cataract of *Niagara*, in North America, which is not more than 162, or, according to some accounts, only 150 feet.

POPULATION.... The *Mahometans*, or, as they are called, *Moors* of Hindoostan, are computed by Mr. Orme, a judicious and authentic writer on the history of this country, to be about ten millions, and the *Indians*, or *Hindoos*, about a hundred millions. According to other estimates the whole population of Hindoostan is supposed only to amount to about 60 millions.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.... The *Hindoos*, or, as they are likewise called, *Gentoos*, have; from time immemorial, been divided into four great tribes. The first and most noble tribe are the *Brahmins*, who alone can officiate in the priesthood, like the *Levites* among the *Jews*. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are strictly prohibited from all menial offices by their laws. The second in order is the *Sittri* tribe, who, according to their original institution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other professions. The third is the tribe of *Beise*, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and *banias*, or shop-keepers. The fourth tribe is that of *Sudder*, who ought to be menial servants; and they are incapable of raising themselves to any superior rank. If any of them should be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his posterity are for ever shut out from the society of every person in the nation, except that of the *Harricast*, who are held in utter detestation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meanest and vilest offices. This circumstance renders excommunication so dreadful, that any Hindoo will suffer the torture, and even death itself, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Besides this division into tribes, the *Gentoos* are also subdivided into casts and small classes or tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of these casts, though some have supposed there are a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the casts, in a particular city or province, is generally indisputably deci-

ded. The Indian of an inferior would think himself highly honoured by adopting the customs of a superior cast : but this latter would give battle sooner than not vindicate its prerogatives. The inferior receives the victuals prepared by a superior cast with respect, but the superior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior cast. Their marriages are circumscribed by the same barriers as the rest of their intercourses ; and hence, besides the national physiognomy, the members of each cast preserve an air of still greater resemblance to one another. There are some casts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarkable for their ugliness.

The members of each cast, says Dr. Robertson, adhere invariably to the profession of their forefathers. From generation to generation, the same families have followed, and will always continue to follow, one uniform line of life. To this may be ascribed that high degree of perfection conspicuous in many of the Indian manufactures ; and though veneration for the practices of their ancestors may check the spirit of invention, yet, by adhering to these, they acquire such an expertness and delicacy of hand, that Europeans, with all the advantages of superior science, and the aid of more complete instruments, have never been able to equal the exquisite execution of their workmanship. While this high improvement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attacked the commerce of other nations, the separation of professions in India, and the early distribution of the people into classes attached to particular kinds of labour, secured such abundance of the more common and useful commodities, as not only supplied their own wants, but ministered to those of the countries around them.

To this early division of the people into casts, we must likewise ascribe a striking peculiarity in the state of India ; the permanence of its institutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India, always was there, and it is still likely to continue ; neither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticism of its Mahommedan conquerors, nor the power of its European masters, have effected any considerable alterations. The same distinctions of condition take place, the same arrangements in civil and domestic society remain, the same maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the same sciences and arts are cultivated. Hence, in all ages, the trade with India has been the same ; gold and silver have uniformly been carried thither in order to purchase the same commodities with which it now supplies all nations ; and, from the age of Pliny to the present times, it has always been considered and execrated as a gulf which swallows up the wealth of every other country, that flows incessantly towards it, and from which it never returns.*

All these casts acknowledge the Brahmins for their priests, and from them derive their belief of the transmigration ; which leads many of them to afflict themselves even at the death of a fly, although occasioned by inadvertence. But the greater number of casts are less scrupulous, and eat, though very sparingly, both of fish and flesh ; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. Their diet is chiefly rice and vegetables, dressed with ginger, turmeric, and other hotter spices, which grow almost spontaneously in their gardens. They es-

* Dr. Robertson's Historical Disquisition concerning India, Appendix, p. 261, 263.

teem milk the purest of foods, because they think it partakes of some of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and because they esteem the cow itself almost like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happiness consists in the solaces of a domestic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indispensable duty in every man, who does not entirely separate himself from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion also permits them to have several wives; but they seldom have more than one; and it has been observed, that their wives are distinguished by a decency of demeanour, a solicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the most civilized countries. The amusements of the Hindoos consist in going to their pagodas, in assisting at religious shows, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies prescribed to them by the Brahmins. Their religion forbids them to quit their own shores,* nor do they want any thing from abroad. They might, therefore, have lived in much tranquillity and happiness, if others had looked on them with the same indifference with which they regard the rest of the world.

The soldiers are commonly called rajah poots, or persons descended from rajahs, and reside chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair complexioned than the people of the southern provinces, who are quite black. These rajah poots are a robust, brave, faithful people, and enter into the service of those who will pay them: but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finished, and they run off the field without any stain upon their reputation.

The custom of the women burning themselves upon the death of their husbands still continues to be practised, though much less frequently than formerly. The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniences, as the Chinese: and there scarcely is an instance of a robbery in all Hindoostan, though the diamond merchants travel without defensive weapons.

The complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair is long, their persons are straight and elegant, their limbs finely proportioned, their fingers long and taper, their countenances open and pleasant, and their features exhibit the most delicate lines of beauty in the females, and in the males a kind of manly softness.

Their walk and gait, as well as their whole deportment, is in the highest degree graceful. The dress of the men is a kind of a close-bodied gown and wide trowsers, resembling petticoats, reaching down to their slippers. Such of the women as appear in public, have shawls over their heads and shoulders, short close jackets, and tight drawers which come down to their ancles. Hence the dress of the men gives them in the eyes of Europeans, an appearance of effeminacy, while that of the women seems rather masculine.

Their houses cover much ground, and have spacious galleries and accommodations of various kinds. The apartments are small, and the

* The Gentoos are persuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kistna, and Indus, have the sacred virtue of purifying those who bathe in them from all pollutions and sins. This religious idea seems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to restrain the natives from migrating into distant countries; for it is remarkable, that the sacred rivers are so situated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of washing away their sins.

furniture not very elegant, if we except the rich Persian carpets. The grandeur of the palaces consists in baths and harams. The harams or zenanas, that is the residences of the women, are removed from the front of the house, and receive the light only from a square space in the centre of the whole building. The apparel of the women is inconceivably rich; they have jewels on their fingers and about their neck, and also in their ears and nostrils, with bracelets on their wrists and arms, and round their ancles.

The Mahommedans, who, in Hindoostan, are called Moors, are of Persian, Turkish, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the caliphs of Bagdad, to invade Hindoostan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are called Tytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which still subsists. Those princes being strict Mahommedans, received under their protection all that professed the same religion, and these being a brave active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They introduced the division of provinces, over which they appointed soubahs; and those provinces, each of which may be styled an empire, were subdivided into nabobships, each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubah, who in process of time became almost independent of the emperor, or as he is called, the Great Mogul, only paying him an annual tribute. The vast resort of Persian and Tartar tribes has likewise strengthened the Mahommedan government; but it is observable that in two or three generations, the progeny of all those adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horses and their swords, degenerated into eastern indolence and sensuality.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the sport of the field. They affect shady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers, of rude music, both of wind and stringed instruments, and play at cards in their private parties.

The Persees, or Parsees, of Hindoostan, are originally the Gaurs, described in Persia, but are a most industrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be possessed of the works of Zoroaster, whom they call by various names. They are known as paying divine adoration to fire, but it is said only as an emblem of the divinity.

PROVINCES, CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES....Bengal, of all the provinces of Hindoostan, is, perhaps, the most interesting to an English reader. It is esteemed the storehouse of the East Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile: and the produce of its soil consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, sesamum, small mulberry and other trees. Its calicoes, silks, saltpetre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world: and provisions here are in vast plenty, and incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks, and geese. The country is intersected by canals, cut from the Ganges for the benefit of commerce, and extends near one hundred leagues on each side of that river, and is full of cities, towns, castles, and villages.

In Bengal, the worship of the Gentoos is practised in its greatest purity, and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples.

Generally speaking, the description of one Indian city is a description of all, as they are all built on one plan, with extremely narrow and crooked streets, with an incredible number of reservoir ponds and gardens. A few of the streets are paved with brick. The houses are variously built; some of brick, others with mud, and a still greater proportion with bamboos and mats; which standing intermixed with each other, form a motley appearance. The bamboo houses are invariably of one story, and covered with thatch. Those of brick seldom exceed two floors, and have flat terraced roofs, but are often so thinly scattered, that fires, which frequently happen, do not sometimes meet with the obstruction of a brick house through the whole street.

Calcutta, the chief city of Bengal, and of all the British possessions in Hindoostan, is, in part, an exception to this rule of building; the quarter inhabited by the English being composed entirely of brick buildings, many of which have more the appearance of palaces than of private houses; but the remainder of the city, and by much the greatest part, is built according to the general description of Indian cities. Within twenty or twenty-five years, Calcutta has been wonderfully improved, both in appearance, and in the salubrity of its air, for the streets have been properly drained, and the ponds filled up; thereby removing a vast surface of stagnant water, the exhalations from which were particularly hurtful. Calcutta is well known to be the emporium of Bengal, and the seat of the governor-general of India. It is supposed at present to contain at least 500,000 inhabitants. Its local situation is not fortunate, for it has some extensive muddy lakes, and a vast forest close to it. It is a modern city, having risen on the site of the village Govindpour, about ninety years ago.*

The city of Calcutta is about 100 miles from the sea, situate on the western branch of the Ganges, which is navigable up to the town, for the largest ships that visit India. It extends from the western point of Fort William along the banks of the river, almost to the village of Cossipoor, that is, about four and a half English miles; the breadth is in many parts inconsiderable. The mixture of European and Asiatic manners, which may be observed in Calcutta, is curious; coaches, phætons, single horse chaises, with the palankeens and hackeries of the natives, the passing ceremonies of the Hindoos, the different appearances of the fakirs, form a sight, perhaps more novel and extraordinary, than any city in the world can present to a stranger.†

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The Indian nabob or viceroy quarrelled with the company, and invested Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor and some of the principal persons of the place threw themselves, with their chief effects, on board the ships in the river; they who remained, for some hours bravely defended the place: but their ammunition being expended, they surrendered upon terms. The soubah, a capricious unfeeling tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwel, the governor's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a little but secure prison, called the Black Hole, a place about 18 feet square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. Their miseries during the night were inexpress-

* Rennell's Memoir.

† Hodge's Travels in India, from 1780 to 1783, p. 15.

sible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrensy. Among those saved was Mr. Holwel himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe. The insensible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the English out of his dominions; but the seasonable arrival of admiral Watson and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession of Calcutta; and the war was concluded by the battle of Plassey, gained by the colonel and the death of the tyrant Surajah Dowlah, in whose place Mhir Jaffier, one of his generals, who had previously signed a secret treaty with Clive to desert his master, and amply reward the English, was advanced of course to the soubahship.

Moorshedabad, or Muxadabad, is a modern city of vast extent, and was the capital of Bengal before the establishment of the English power.

Chandernagore was formerly the principal place possessed by the French in Bengal; it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though strongly fortified, furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the English admirals Watson and Pococke, and colonel Clive; and also was taken in the following war, but was restored by the peace of 1783. It was again taken in 1793, and remains in the hands of the English. Hoogley, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richest of all Indian commodities. The Dutch had here a well fortified factory. The search for diamonds is carried on by about ten thousand people, from Sumbulpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hoogley, for about fifty miles farther. Dacca is said to be the largest city in Bengal, of which it was the capital, before Moorshedabad. The tide comes up to its walls, and it formerly contained a Dutch factory. The weaving business, the great trade of India, is carried here to a perfection unknown in other parts, and the muslins made here are of most exquisite fineness. The other chief towns are Cosimbuzar, Chinsura, formerly a Dutch settlement, Rajmahal, and Mauldah; besides a number of other places of less note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

The province of Bahar lies to the west of Bengal; it carries on a considerable trade, most of the saltpetre exported to England being made in it. The capital is Patna, supposed by major Rennel to be the Palibothra of the ancients, with which opinion Sir William Jones appears to have coincided, though D'Anville and Dr. Robertson thought Allahabad, the capital of the soubah of the same name, to have been this celebrated ancient city. Patna is situate on the south bank of the Ganges, along which river the city and suburbs extend five miles. It is fortified in the Indian manner, with a wall and citadel.

Benares is a rich and populous city, on the northern bank of the Ganges, about four hundred and fifty miles from Calcutta. It is more celebrated as the ancient seat of Brahminical learning, for which it is a kind of university, than on any other account. It contains the remains of many Hindoo temples or pagodas, and in the middle of the city is a large mosque, built by Aurungzebe, who destroyed a magnificent pagoda to erect it on its site. The zemindary, or district of Benares, was a part of the province or soubahship of Oude till 1774,

when its tribute or quit-rent of 24 lacks of rupees was transferred to the English.

Allahabad, in the province of the same name, is situate at the conflux of the Ganges and the Jumna, where the waters of the former river, which are every where held sacred, are thought to be peculiarly sanctified; whence the city has received the name of Allahabad, or the City of God. It belongs to the nabob of Oude, and contains a spacious fort, and several magnificent structures. At a little distance, to the south-west, are the diamond mines of Penna, in the small detached province of Bundelcund.

Lucknow, which is the present capital of Oude, having superseded Fyzabad, is extensive, but meanly built. The houses are chiefly mud walls, covered with thatch, and many consist entirely of mats and bamboos, and are thatched with leaves of the cocoa-nut, palm-tree, and sometimes with straw. The palace of the nabob stands on a high bank near the river, and commands an extensive view both of the Goomty and the country on the eastern side. Fyzabad is of great extent, and appears to contain a great number of people, but they are chiefly of the lowest class; for the court being removed to Lucknow, drew after it the great men, and the most eminent of the merchants, bankers, and shroffs, or money-changers. Nearly adjoining to Fyzabad are the remains of the very ancient city of Oude, which is said to have been the first imperial city of Hindoostan, and capital of a great empire twelve hundred years before the Christian æra; but whatever was its former magnificence, no traces of it now remain. It is considered as a holy place, and the Hindoos frequently come thither on pilgrimage from every part of India.

Agra, situate on the south side of the river Jumna, was made the capital of the Mogul empire by the emperor Acbar, about the year 1566, and named from him Acbarabad. It was then a small fortified town, but soon became one of the largest and most celebrated cities of Hindoostan, being fourteen miles in circumference, regularly fortified in the Indian manner, with a fine citadel, and containing many magnificent palaces; but after the removal of the capital of the empire to Delhi, by Shah Jehan, the grandson of Acbar, it rapidly declined. To the south-east of the city of Agra is a beautiful monument, raised by the emperor Shah Jehan, for his beloved wife Tajemahel, whose name it bears. When this building is viewed from the opposite side of the river, it possesses a degree of beauty, from the excellence of the materials, and the perfection of the workmanship, which is only surpassed by its grandeur, extent, and general magnificence.

Delhi, or Shahjehanabad, the capital of the province of Delhi, is likewise the nominal capital of all Hindoostan, and was the real one, from 1647, when Shah Jehan made it his residence to avoid the heats of Agra, till the present dissolution of the empire. It is said to be a city of great antiquity, and that its ancient name was Inderput. It is situate on the Jumna, 117 miles to the north-west of Agra. It is about seven miles in circumference, and is surrounded on three sides by a wall of brick and stone, and has seven gates built of free-stone. Though this city may be said to be now in ruins, it contains above forty mosques, the principal of which is very magnificent, and the remains of many noble and splendid palaces, with baths of marble. The gardens of Shalimar, laid out by order of the emperor Shah Jehan, though not more than a mile in circumference, are said to have cost

a million sterling in rich and profuse decorations, and to have been nine years in completing. One of the quarters of the city has been very thinly inhabited since the dreadful massacre by Nadir Shah, in 1739, in which above one hundred thousand of the inhabitants were slaughtered. The environs of this once magnificent and celebrated city, appear now nothing more than a shapeless heap of ruins, and the surrounding country is equally desolate and forlorn.

The province of Cashmere, being surrounded with mountains, is difficult of access; but when entered, it appears to be the paradise of the Indies. It is said to contain one hundred thousand villages, to be stored with cattle and game, without any beasts of prey. The capital (called Cashmere) stands by a large lake; and both sexes, the women especially, are almost as fair as the Europeans, and are said to be witty, dexterous, and ingenious. This province is particularly famed for the beauty and fineness of the shawls made here.

The province of Cabul is diversified with hills, dales, and extensive forests; but the mountains are said to be covered with perpetual snow. The city of Cabul is the capital of the dominions of the Afghans, or kingdom of Candahar.

The province and city of Lahore formerly made a great figure in the Indian history, and is still one of the largest and finest provinces, producing the best sugars of any in Hindoostan. The city of Lahore was once nine miles in length, but is now much decayed. It is at present the capital of the Seiks.

The inhabitants of the province of Moultan carry on an extensive traffic in horses with the Persians and Tartars; the city of the same name is principally remarkable for its antiquity and its cotton manufactures.

Tatta, the capital of Sinde, is a large city, formerly distinguished for its manufactures in silk and cotton; but a plague which happened in 1699, carried off above eighty thousand of the inhabitants employed in them, and they have since greatly declined. It is still famous for its manufacture of palanquins which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repose when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, forty miles a day; ten being usually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at first cost, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten shillings a month each, out of which they maintain themselves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

The greater part of the provinces of Agimere, Candeish, and Malwa, are possessed by the Mahratta chief, Scindia, whose usual residence is at Ougein, the capital of the latter, an ancient and spacious city, six miles in circumference, and surrounded with a strong wall, with round towers. It is situate on the Sepras, and contains four mosques, a number of Hindoo temples, and a new and sumptuous palace, built by Scindia.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the gulf of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India, but inhabited by a fierce, rapacious people. It is said to contain thirty-five cities. Ahmedabad is the capital, where there is an English factory, and it is said, in wealth, to vie with the richest towns in Europe. At the distance of about one hundred and ten miles to the south, stands Surat, on the Taptee, one of the most rich and commercial cities in Hindoostan, and containing near three

hundred thousand inhabitants, though the harbour is small and incommodious, on which account ships generally receive and deliver their cargoes for the merchants of Surat at the port of Swalley, about twelve miles distant to the north-west. The English have a very flourishing factory at Surat.

Among the islands lying upon the same coast, is that of Bombay, belonging to the English East India company. Its harbour can conveniently contain one thousand ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its situation and harbour are its chief recommendations, being destitute of almost all the conveniences of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance, taught them preservatives against its unwholesomeness. The best water there is preserved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy seasons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone. Many black merchants reside here. This island was part of the portion paid with the infant of Portugal to Charles II, who gave it to the East India company; and the island is still divided into three Roman-catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and what are called Mestizos and Canarines; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese, and the other the aborigines of the country. The English have found methods to render this island and town, under all their disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The reader scarcely needs to be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay have lucrative posts, as well as the officers under them. The troops on the island are commanded by English officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and disciplined, are here, and all over the East Indies, called Seapoys. The inhabitants of the island amount to near sixty thousand, of different nations, each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmolested.

Proceeding to the south on the western coast of what is termed the Peninsula of Hindoostan, the tract that borders on the sea, from Bombay to Goa, is called the Concan, and sometimes the Pirate coast, as it was subject to the celebrated pirate Angria, and his successors, whose capital was the strong fortress of Gheriah, taken by the English and Mahrattas in 1755: by the acquisition of this coast the Mahrattas have become a maritime power.

The island and city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in the East Indies, lies about two hundred and sixty miles south of Bombay. The island is about twenty-seven miles in compass; it is one of the finest and best fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a most superb settlement, and was surpassed, either in bulk or beauty, by few of the European cities. It is said that the revenues of the Jesuits upon this island equalled those of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the rest of the Portuguese possessions of this coast, are under a viceroy, who still keeps up some remains of the ancient splendor of the government.

The late kingdom of Canara, or Canhara, begins forty miles to the south of Goa, and reaches to Calicut; its soil is extremely productive of rice, and supplies many parts of Europe, and several of the Indies. The Canarines, it is said, were always governed by a queen, whose son had the title of rajah; but the country was conquered by Hyder Ali; and since the defeat and death of his son, Tippoo Sultan, has been

in possession of the English. The principal ports of this province are Mangalore and Onore : the capital is Bednore.

To the east of Canara, on the other side of the Ghauts or mountains, is the country of Mysore, the capital of which, Seringapatam, is now held by the English. This celebrated city, the conquest of which has shed such lustre on the British arms, is situate on an island of the river Caveri, four miles long, and about a mile and an half broad. On the western side is a fortress with regular outworks, and the city contains several magnificent palaces and lofty mosques ; for Tippoo and his father were Mahometans, and not Gentoos. The mausoleum of Hyder Ali, erected by his son, is a sumptuous edifice ; in the environs are noble gardens.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole south-west coast of the peninsula, yet it is confined at present to the country so called, lying on the north-west of Cape Comorin. The principal places on this coast are Tellicherry, an English settlement in a beautiful situation, and remarkable for its salubrity, whence it is the great resort of invalids. Calicut, memorable for having been the first Indian port visited by the Portuguese under Vasco de Gama, and as the seat of the Zamorins, the sovereigns of the country, who at this period appear to have possessed the whole Malabar coast from Goa to Cochin ; and Cranganore, formerly a Dutch settlement, but sold by them to the rajah of Travancore, the attack of which place by Tippoo Sultan, in 1790, occasioned the war with that prince, the result of which put us in possession, by the partition treaty, of the whole coast from Caroor to mount Dilly.

Cochin is situated on an island separated from the main land by a narrow creek of the sea. It is a rajahship which appears to be dependent upon that of Travancore, which extends along this coast to Cape Comorin. Cochin was one of the earliest settlements of the Portuguese in India. The Dutch gained possession of it in 1660 ; and from them it was taken, in 1795, by the English, who still retain it.

In the vicinity of Cochin are to be found some thousands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manasseh, and to have records engraved on copper-plates in Hebrew characters : they are said to be so poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion.

Cape Comorin, which is the southernmost part of this peninsula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the same garden the two seasons of the year ; the trees being loaded with blossoms and fruit on the one side, while on the other they are stripped of all their leaves. This surprising phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains so often mentioned, called the Ghauts, which traverse the whole peninsula from south to north. On the opposite sides of the Cape, the winds are continually at variance ; blowing from the west on the west side, and from the east on the eastern side.

Beyond Cape Comorin, the sea coast extends northerly, with a considerable curvature towards the east, to Cape Calymere, where the coast of Coromandel properly begins. This space comprehends the kingdoms or provinces of Tinevelly, Madura, Marawar, or the Marawars, and Tondiman. The greatest breadth of these countries is about seventy-six miles ; the length to Cape Calymere, two hundred and twenty. The kingdom of Tinevelly is separated from that of Travancore by the Ghauts ; its extent of coast, which is called the Fishing Coast, from its valuable fishery of pearls, is nearly a hundred miles. This province and Madura are flat, and are extremely produc-

tive of rice; abundance of cotton also grows in the drier parts. The principal places in the first are Tinevelly and the fort of Palamcottah, which last has in its neighbourhood a peculiar manufacture of muslin. At Madura various kinds of linen cloths are manufactured. Madura and Palamcottah are garrisoned by English troops; but the revenues of the country are collected by the nabob of Arcot.

Tanjore is a little kingdom lying to the east of Madura; the soil is fertile, and its prince was rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and some British subjects connected with him. Within it lies the Danish East India settlement of Tranquebar, and the fortress of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch, during the war before the last, and confirmed to the English by the treaty of peace: the capital city is Tanjore.

The Carnada, or Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the English; it is bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal; on the north by the river Kistna, which divides it from Golconda; on the west by Visiapour; and on the south by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjore; being in length from south to north, about three hundred and forty-five miles, and two hundred and seventy-six in breadth from east to west. The capital of the Carnatic is Arcot, belonging to the nabob of Arcot. The country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country upon the Coromandel coast, lies fort St. David, or Cuddalore, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the East Indies, but which has been repeatedly taken by the English, and as often restored by the treaties of peace.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the English East India company's dominions in that part of the East Indies, and is distant eastward from London about four thousand eight hundred miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort; but no pains have been spared by the company in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexion of their several inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to amend the natural badness of its situation, which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are but a week's journey distant. These mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who let them out by admeasurement, and inclosing the contents by palisadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The district belonging to Madras, extending about forty miles round, is of little value for its produce. Eighty thousand inhabitants of various nations are said to be dependent upon Madras; but its safety consists in the superiority of the English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia, and Mocha.

Pullicate, or Poulicat, lying to the north of Madras, belongs to the Dutch. The kingdom of Golconda, which, besides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapness of its provisions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January, has already been mentioned. Golconda is subject to a prince called the nizam, or soubah of the Decan, who is rich, and can raise one hundred thousand men. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagar, or Hydrabad, but the kingdom takes its name from the fortress of Golconda. East-south-east of

Golconda lies Masulipatam, where the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at Ganjam and Vizigapatam, on this coast; and the Dutch at Narsipore.

The province of Visiapour, or Bejapore, before its conquest by the Mogul emperors, was a large kingdom, the rajah of which, it is said, had a revenue of six millions sterling, and could bring into the field one hundred and fifty thousand soldiers; it is now subject to the Poonah Mahrattas. The capital is of the same name, and the country very fruitful. The province of Dowlatabad adjoins to Visiapour on the north; the capital is Aurungabad, one of the most populous cities of Hindoostan, built by Aurungzebe near the old capital, Dowlatabad, or Doltabad, which has a very strong fortress, seated on a lofty mountain.

The province of Orissa, whence the English company draw some part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from east to west about five hundred and fifty miles, and in breadth about two hundred and forty. The greater part of it is in possession of the Mahratta chief, Bounsla; but the capital, Cattack, and the port of Balasore, has been ceded to the English by the treaty which concluded the short but successful war of 1803; an acquisition the more valuable, as it secures a communication between the British territory on the Ganges, and that on the coast of Coromandel.

In this province stands the temple of Jagernaut, which they say is attended by five hundred priests. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black stone of about four or five hundred pounds weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to represent the eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with vermillion.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE... The manufactures of Hindoostan consist principally of muslins and silks; the shawls of Cashmire are particularly esteemed. The inhabitants, in all handicraft trades that they understand, are more industrious, and better workmen, than most of the Europeans; and in weaving, sewing, embroidering, and some other manufactures, it is said that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineness of their linen, and their fillagree work in gold and silver, are beyond any thing of those kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in short, is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been so from the earliest ages; it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their principal materials of luxury. The greatest share of it is centered in England, the trade of the French with this country being at present entirely annihilated; nor is that of the Portuguese, Danes, and Dutch, of much importance. The exports from Hindoostan are diamonds, raw and some wrought silks, rice, spices, and drugs.

The Mahommedan merchants carry on a trade with Mecca, in Arabia, from the western parts of this country, up the Red Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular species of vessels called junks, the largest of which, we are told, besides the cargoes, will carry seventeen hundred Mahommedan pilgrims to visit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyssinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they dispose of their cargoes for gold and silver; so that a Mahommedan junk, returning from this voyage, is often worth two hundred thousand pounds.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS...The government of the Mogul emperors was despotic, and such is that of the different native sovereigns who rule the country at present. The people of Hindoostan are governed by no written laws; nor is there a lawyer in the whole empire; and their courts of justice are directed by precedents. The Mahomedan institutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that state even down to the subtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each district. The imperial demesne lands are those of the great rajah families, which fell to Timur and his successors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are bestowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and, upon their death, revert to the emperor; but the rights of the subtenants, even of those lands, are indefeasible.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long subsisted, without almost the semblance of virtue among its great officers either civil or military. It was shaken, however, after the invasion of Mahommed Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the soubahs and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies, and support their power; so that many of the people a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and taxmasters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, those soubahs and nabobs, and other Mahomedan governors, employ the Gentoos themselves and some even of the Brahmins, as the ministers of their rapaciousness and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Kahn, Hindoostan, from being a well regulated government, is become a scene of mere anarchy and stratocracy; every great man protects himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worse state, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above causes are owing the late successes of the English in Hindoostan.

REVENUES....The whole revenues of the Mogul empire, in the time of Aurungzebe, were computed at thirty millions sterling; which, it has been observed, considering the comparative value of all the necessaries of life, and produce of the soil in that country, may be estimated as equal to four times that sum in England at present.

ROYAL TITLE....The emperor of Hindoostan, or Great Mogul (so called from being descended from Timur, or Tamerlane, the Mongul or Mogul Tartar) on his advancement to the throne, assumes some grand title; as, "*The Conqueror of the World, the Ornament of the Throne,*" &c. but he is never crowned.

RELIGION....The institutions of religion, publicly established in all the extensive countries stretching from the banks of the Indus to Cape Comorin, present to view an aspect nearly similar. They form a regular and complete system of superstition, strengthened and upheld by every thing which can excite the reverence and secure the attachment of the people. The temples consecrated to their dei-

ties are magnificent, and adorned not only with rich offerings, but with the most exquisite works in painting and sculpture which the artists highest in estimation among them were capable of executing. The rites and ceremonies of their worship are pompous and splendid, and the performance of them not only mingles in all the transactions of common life, but constitutes an essential part of them. The Brahmins, who, as ministers of religion, preside in all its functions, are elevated above every other order of men, by an origin deemed not only more noble, but acknowledged to be sacred. They have established among themselves a regular hierarchy and gradation of ranks, which, by securing subordination in their own order, adds weight to their authority, and gives them a more absolute dominion in the minds of the people. This dominion they support by the command of the immense revenues with which the liberality of princes, and the zeal of pilgrims and devotees, have enriched them.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are stupendous but disgusting stone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Brahmins. To this, however, there are some exceptions: for, in proportion to the progress of the different countries of India in opulence and refinement, the structure of their temples gradually improved. From plain buildings they became highly ornamented fabrics, and, both by their extent and magnificence, are monuments of the power and taste of the people by whom they were erected. In this highly finished style there are pagodas of great antiquity in different parts of Hindoostan, particularly in the southern provinces, which are not exposed to the destructive violence of the Mahommedan zeal. In order to assist our readers in forming a proper idea of these buildings, we shall briefly describe two, of which we have the most accurate accounts. The entry to the pagoda of Chillambrum, near Porto Novo, on the Coromandel coast, held in high veneration on account of its antiquity, is by a stately gate under a pyramid, a hundred and twenty-two feet in height, built with large stones, above forty feet long, and more than five feet square, and covered with plates of copper, adorned with an immense variety of figures, neatly executed. The whole structure extends one thousand three hundred and thirty-two feet in one direction, and nine hundred and thirty-six in another. Some of the ornamental parts are finished with an elegance entitled to admiration.

The pagoda of Seringham, superior in sanctity to that of Chillambrum, surpasses it as much in grandeur. This pagoda is situated about a mile from the western extremity of the island of Seringham, formed by the division of the great river Caveri into two channels. "It is composed of seven square inclosures, one within the other, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. These inclosures are three hundred and fifty feet distant from one another, and each has four large gates with a square tower, which are placed, one in the middle of each side of the inclosures, and opposite to the four cardinal points. The outward wall is nearly four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the south is ornamented with pillars, several of which are single stones thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter; and those which form the roof are still larger: in the inmost inclosures are the chapels. Here, as in all the other great pagodas of India, the Brahmins live in a subordination which knows no resistance, and slumber in a voluptuousness which knows no wants."

If the Brahmins are masters of any uncommon art or science, they frequently turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scarfton says, that they know how to calculate eclipses; and that judicial astrology is so prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mahommedans likewise encourage those superstitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo industry as belonging to themselves. Though the Gentoos are entirely passive, under all their oppressions, and, by their state of existence, the practice of their religion, and the scantiness of their food, have nothing of that refinement in their nature that animates the rest of mankind; yet they are susceptible of avarice, and sometimes bury their money, and, rather than discover it, put themselves to death by poison or otherwise. This practice, which it seems is not uncommon, accounts for the vast scarcity of silver that, till of late, prevailed in Hindoostan.

The reasons above mentioned account likewise for their being less under the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and, their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of their women is on the decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are, therefore, not to wonder at their being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigour of mind: and it is with them a frequent saying, that it is better to sit than to walk, to lie down than to sit, to sleep than to wake, and death is the best of all.

LEARNING....The Brahmins, who are the tribe of the priesthood, descend from those Brachmans who are mentioned to us with so much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either as philosophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their ancestors, as priests, their religious doctrines are still implicitly followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the source of all the knowledge which exists in Hindoostan. But the utmost stretch of their mathematical knowledge seems to be the calculation of eclipses. They have a good idea of logic; but it does not appear that they have any treatises on rhetoric; their ideas of music, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine, they derive no assistance from the knowledge of anatomy, since dissections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Asiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the diction of their historians very diffuse, and verbose; but though the manner of eastern compositions differs from the correct taste of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Asiatic authors, worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow observes, that in the Sanscrit or learned language of the Brahmins, which is the grand repository of the religion, philosophy, and history of the Hindoos, there are in particular many hundred volumes in prose which treat of the ancient Indians and their history. The same writer also remarks, that the Sanscrit records contain accounts of the affairs of the Western Asia, very different from what any tribe of the Arabians have transmitted to posterity; and that it is more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more

authenticity, and of greater antiquity, than the latter. The Arabian writers have been generally so much prejudiced against the Hindoos, that their accounts of them are by no means to be implicitly relied on.

Mr. Dow observes, that the small progress which correctness and elegance of sentiment and diction have made in the East, did not proceed from a want of encouragement to literature. On the contrary, it appears that no princes in the world patronised men of letters with more generosity and respect than the Mahommedan emperors of Hindoostan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth, which must astonish Europeans, but an infallible road for rising to the first offices of the state. The character of the learned was at the same time so sacred, that tyrants, who made a pastime of embruing their hands in the blood of their other subjects, not only abstained from offering violence to men of genius, but stood in fear of their pens.

UNIVERSITIES... The great seat of Brahminical learning, as has already been mentioned, is Benares; besides which there is an academy of the same kind at Triciur, on the Malabar coast, that is in great repute; and a celebrated Brahmin school at Cangiburam, in Carnate, which appears, from the testimony of Ptolemy, to have existed in the first century of the Christian æra, and the members of which are equal in celebrity to the Brahmins of Benares.

LANGUAGE... The Sanscrit, or sacred language of the Brahmins, is an original and extremely artificial language, compared by Sir William Jones to the Greek and Latin; it is written with fifty-two characters, and abounds in compound words. The languages in common use within the wide extent of this great country, are various: Persian was generally spoken at the court of Delhi; the Devangaric, or Hindoostanic, is spoken at Benares, and has fifty-two characters, with which the Sanscrit may be written. Its mode of writing has been introduced into all the northern parts of India. The Bengalese, or common language of Bengal, is a wretched and corrupt dialect, spoken at Calcutta. The Guzeratic is spoken in the province Guzerat and Sinde. The Marashda, or language of the Mahrattas, is prevalent through all the country of the Mahrattas. The Talenga, an harmonious, nervous, and learned language, which, like the Sanscrit, has fifty-two characters, is spoken on the coast of Orissa, in Golconda, on the river Kistna, and as far as the mountains of Balangat. The Tamulac is spoken in the Deccan, Mysore, Madura, and some parts of the Malabar coasts, though there the Malabar principally prevails. The Canarese, or language of Canara, extends to Goa. To these may be added the Nepalic, spoken in the kingdom of Nipaul, on the borders of Tibet, which has a great similarity to the Devangaric. Almost all these languages have their distinct alphabets.

ANTIQUITIES... Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the most inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural size, cut coarsely in stone, presents itself on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain. An easy slope then leads to a stupendous temple, hewn out of the solid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther

end are three gigantic figures, which have been mutilated by the blind zeal of the Portuguese. Beside the temple are various images, and groups on each hand, cut in the stone...one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance of the judgment of Solomon: also a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of resemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

At Ellora, not far from Dowlatabad, in the province of that name, is a spacious plain, two leagues in extent, filled with pagodas, tombs, chapels, pillars, and many thousand of statues of colossal size, cut out of the natural rock, but of bad sculpture, being of great antiquity, and the work of the early Hindoos.

HISTORY....The first invader of this country, India, whose expedition is authentically recorded, was the famous Alexander of Macedon. Zingis Khan also directed his force thither in the year 1221, and made the emperor forsake his capital. Long before Timur, or Tamerlane, descended in the female line from that conqueror, Mahommedan princes had entered, made conquests, and established themselves in India. Walid, the sixth of the Caliphs named Ommiades, who ascended the throne in the 708th year of the Christian æra, and in the 90th of the Hegira, made conquests in India; so that the Koran was introduced very early into this country. Mahmoud, son of Sebegtechin, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province separated by mountains from the north-west parts of India, and situated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the sword into Hindoostan, in the year one thousand, or one thousand and two of the Christian æra. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treasures, demolishing temples, and murdering idolaters throughout his route. The wealth found by him in Hindoostan is represented to be immense. The successors of this Mahmoud are called the dynasty of the Gaznavides, and maintained themselves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India until the year 1155 or 1157, when Kosron Shah, the thirteenth and last prince of the Gaznavide race, was deposed by Kussain Gauri, who founded the dynasty of the Gaurides, which furnished five princes, who possessed nearly the same dominions as their predecessors the Gaznavides. Scheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predecessor, Gaiatheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moulton and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treasures. But an Indian who had been rendered desperate by the pollutions and insults to which he saw his gods and temples exposed, made a vow to assassinate Scheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides finished in the year 1212, in the person of Mahmoud, successor and nephew to Scheabbedin, who was also cut off by the swords of assassins. Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, who entered India at the end of the year 1398, descending more terrible than all its former inundations, from the centre of the northern part of the Indian Caucasus. This invincible barbarian met with no resistance sufficient to justify, even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But, after an immense slaughter of human creatures, he at length rendered himself lord of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges. The history of the successors of Tamerlane, who reigned over Hindoostan with little interruption more than 350 years, has been variously represented; but all writers

agree, that they were magnificent and despotic princes, and that they committed their provinces to rapacious governors, or to their own sons, by which their empire was often miserably torn in pieces. At length, the famous Aurungzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngest among many sons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brothers, mounted the throne of Hindoostan, and may be considered as the real founder and legislator of the empire. He was a great and a politic prince, and the first who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the peninsula within the Ganges, which is at present so well known to the English. He lived so late as the year 1707, and it is said that some of his great officers of state were alive in the year 1750.

In 1713, four of his grandsons disputed the empire, which, after a bloody struggle, fell to the eldest, Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shah. This prince was a slave to his pleasures, and was governed by his mistress so absolutely, that his great omrahs conspired against him, and raised to the throne one of his nephews, who struck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whose name was Furrukhsir, was governed and at last enslaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abused their powers so grossly, that being afraid to punish them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately assassinated. They discovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whose place they raised a grandson of Aurungzebe, by his daughter, a youth of seventeen years of age, after imprisoning and strangling Furrukhsir. The young emperor proved disagreeable to the brothers, and, being soon poisoned, they raised to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Hindoostan, whose ancestors had entered into stipulations, or what may be called *facta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field against the two brothers, but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil possession of the empire, but died in 1719. He was succeeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahommed Shah, and entered into private measures with his great rajahs for destroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Nizam al Muluck, one of Aurungzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is said, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himself against the brothers, and to proclaim himself soubah of the Deccan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was assassinated by the emperor's order, and who immediately advanced to Delhi to destroy the other brother; but he no sooner understood what had happened, than he proclaimed the sultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle ensued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious. He is said to have used his conquest with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the prison from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewise a prisoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement; but the emperor took possession of his vast riches. Seyd did not long survive his confinement; and, upon his death, the emperor abandoned himself to the same course of pleasures that had been so fatal to his predecessors. As to Nizam he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed against the Mahrattas, whom he defeated, when they had almost made themselves masters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his soubahship, and was considered as the first subject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for

inviting Nadir Shah, otherwise Kouli Khan, the Persian monarch, to invade Hindoostan. It is thought, that he had intelligence of a strong party formed against him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have success, and at first wanted to make himself useful by opposing him. The success of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immense treasure which he carried from Hindoostan in 1739. Besides those treasures, he obliged the Mogul to surrender to him all the lands to the west of the rivers Attock and Sind, comprehending the provinces of Peyshor, Cabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almost equal in value to the crown of Persia itself.

This invasion cost the Mogul empire 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, some accounts, and those too strongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible sum of two hundred and thirty-one millions sterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of those times. The most moderate say that Nadir's own share amounted to considerably above seventy millions. Be that as it may, the invasion of Nadir Shah may be considered as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the house of Timur. Nadir, however, when he had raised all the money he could in Delhi, reinstated the Mogul, Mahommed Shah, in the sovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces soon after ensued; none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-west of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being assassinated in 1747, Achmet Abdallah, his treasurer, an unprincipled man, but possessed of great intrepidity, found means, in the general confusion occasioned by the tyrant's death, to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was enabled to put himself at the head of an army, and march against Delhi with fifty thousand horse. Thus was the wealth drawn from Delhi made the means of continuing those miseries of war which it had at first occasioned. Prince Achmet Shah, the Mogul's eldest son, and the vizier, with other leading men, in this extremity, took the field with eighty thousand horse, to oppose the invader. The war was carried on with various success, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination. His son, Achmet Shah, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the empire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which the Indus is the general boundary.

The Mahrattas, a warlike nation of the south-western peninsula of India, had, before the invasion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout or tribute from the empire, arising out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being withheld in consequence of the enfeebled state of the empire, the Mahrattas became clamorous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claim to jaghires* and to districts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every species of domestic misery. Achmet Shah reigned only seven years, after which much disorder and confusion prevailed in Hindoostan, and the people suffered great calamities. At present, the imperial dignity of Hindoostan is vested in Shah Allum Zadah, who is universally

* Jaghire means a grant of land from a sovereign to a subject, revokable indeed, at pleasure, but generally held for life.

acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race ; but his power is feeble : the city of Delhi, and a small territory round it, is all that is left remaining of the house and heir of Timur, who depends upon the protection of the English, and whose interest it is to support him, as his authority is the best legal guarantee of their possessions.

We shall now conclude the history of Hindoostan with some account of the British transactions in that part of the world, since 1765, when they were quietly settled in the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, and in the Carnatic, not indeed as absolute sovereigns, but as tributaries to the emperor. This state of tranquillity, however, did not long continue, for in 1767, they found themselves engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ally the sovereign of Mysore. This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the French camp ; and in the year 1753 had distinguished himself in their service. In 1763, having been advanced to the command of the army of Mysore, he deposed his sovereign, and usurped the supreme authority, under the title of regent. In a short time he extended his dominions on all sides, except the Carnatic, until at last his dominions equalled the island of Great Britain in extent, with a revenue of not less than four millions sterling annually. The discords which took place in various parts of Hindoostan, particularly among the Mahrattas, enabled him to aggrandise himself in such a manner that his power soon became formidable to his neighbours ; and in 1767, he found himself in danger of being attacked on one side by the Mahrattas, and on the other by the British. The former were bought off with a sum of money, and the latter were in consequence obliged to retire. Having soon, however, assembled all their forces, several obstinate engagements took place ; and the British now, for the first time, found a steady opposition from an Indian prince. The war continued with various success during the years 1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, with a strong detachment of his army, passing by that of the British, advanced within a little distance of Madras, where he intimidated the government into a peace upon his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, however, were quickly lost by an unfortunate war with the Mahrattas, from whom, in the year 1771, he received a most dreadful defeat, almost his whole army being killed or taken. Hyder was now reduced to the necessity of allowing his enemies to desolate the country, till they retired of their own accord ; after which he retrieved his affairs with incredible perseverance and diligence, so that in a few years he became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Mahrattas made some attempts to get possession of the district of Corah, and some other parts of the province of Oude, but were opposed by the British, who, next year, defeated and drove them across the river Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occasion the latter had acted only as the allies of Sujah Dowla, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promised to pay forty lacks of rupees for the protection afforded them ; but when the money came to be paid, it was, under various pretences, refused ; the consequence of which was, that the Rohilla country was next year (1774) invaded and conquered by the British, as well as several other large tracts of territory ; by which means the boundary of Oude was advanced, to the westward, within twenty-five

miles of Agra; north-westward, to the upper part of the navigable course of the Ganges; and south-westward to the Jumna river.

In 1778, a new war commenced with the Mahrattas; on which occasion a brigade consisting of 7000 Indian troops, commanded by British officers, traversed the whole empire of the Mahrattas, from the river Jumna to the western ocean. About this time the war with France broke out, and Hyder Alley, probably expecting assistance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men. For some time he carried every thing before him; and having the fortune to defeat, or rather destroy, a detachment of the British army, under colonel Baillie, it was generally imagined that the power of Britain in that part of the world would soon have been annihilated. By the happy exertions of Sir Eyre Coote, however, to whom the management of affairs was now committed, the progress of this formidable adversary was stopped, and he soon became weary of a war, which was attended with incredible expence to himself, without any reasonable prospect of success. By the year 1782, therefore, Hyder Alley was sincerely desirous of peace, but died before it could be brought to a conclusion; and his rival, Sir Eyre Coote, did not survive him above five months: a very remarkable circumstance, that the commanders in chief of two armies, opposed to each other, should both die natural deaths within so short a space of time.

To Hyder Alley succeeded his son Tippoo Sultan, whose military prowess is well known. Of all the native princes of India, Tippoo was the most formidable to the British government, and the most hostile to its authority. The peace of Mangalore, in 1781, had, it was supposed, secured his fidelity by very feeble ties; and the splendid embassy which, not long after that event, he dispatched to France, afforded much reason to apprehend that some plan was concerted between the old government of that country and the tyrant of Mysore, for the annoyance of Great Britain in its Indian possessions; but this plan was happily defeated by the French revolution.

The increasing power of Tippoo was not less formidable to the Dutch, than to the English; and the vicinity of Cochin, their most flourishing settlement on the continent of India, to the territories of that aspiring monarch, made them tremble for its safety. Besides Cochin, the Dutch were possessed of two other forts, which were situated between Mysore, and their favourite settlement; and one of them, Cranganore, had been taken by Hyder Alley in 1779, or 1780. When the war broke out in 1780, between Hyder and the English, he was obliged to evacuate his garrisons on the Malabar coast, to employ his force in the Carnatic; and Holland and France being soon after united with Hyder against the English, the Dutch embraced the opportunity of clandestinely taking possession, and re-garrisoning the fort, a measure which greatly offended Hyder, and of which he loudly complained. By the mediation, however, of France, a compromise took place, but upon what terms is uncertain.

From the vicinity of Cranganore and Acottah to his boundary, and their situation within the territory of an acknowledged tributary to Mysore (the rajah of Cochin) the possession of them was a most desirable object with Tippoo. In the month of June, 1789, he marched a formidable force towards Cranganore, with a professed intention of making himself master of it, upon a claim chiefly founded upon the transactions we have just related. Unable, therefore, to retain

the possession of the forts themselves, and fearing for a settlement of much superior value, the Dutch readily entered into a negotiation with the rajah of Travancore for the purchase of them. That politic people easily saw, that, by placing them in his hands, they erected a most powerful barrier, no less than the whole force of Great Britain (who was bound by treaty to assist him) against the encroachments of their ambitious neighbour upon their settlement at Cochin. The imprudence of the rajah, in entering upon such a purchase while the title was disputed, drew down upon him the heaviest censures from the government at Madras; and he was repeatedly cautioned both by Sir Archibald Campbell, and Mr. Holland, his successor in the government, not to proceed in the negotiation. Such, however, was the ardour and temerity of the rajah in making this acquisition, that he not only concluded the purchase with the Dutch, but even treated with the rajah of Cochin, without the privity of Tippoo, though he was the acknowledged tributary of that prince, for some adjacent territory. The bargain was concluded in July, 1789, though it was not till the 4th of August that the rajah informed the Madras government, through their resident Mr. Powney, that he was on the point of making the purchase.

It was not probable that Tippoo would remain an indifferent spectator of these transactions. He insisted on the claim which he retained over these forts, in consequence of their being conquered by his father, and in consequence of the subsequent compromise. He asserted, that according to the feudal laws, no transfer of them could take place without his consent, as sovereign of Mysore; and on the 29th of December, he made, with a considerable force, a direct attack upon the lines of Travancore. On receiving a remonstrance from the British government of Fort St. George, he desisted, and even apologised. From the 29th December to the 1st March, Tippoo Sultan remained perfectly quiet, still asserting his claims to the feudal sovereignty of the forts; but it is confidently affirmed, offering to submit the dispute to an impartial arbitration.

On the first of March 1790, the rajah's troops made an offensive attack upon Tippoo, who had continued quiet within his lines from the 29th December. An engagement took place; and the British government conceived themselves bound to take an active part. No period appeared more favourable to humble Tippoo, if that was the object of the British administration. With all the other powers of India we were not only at peace, but treaties of alliance existed between Great Britain and the two most powerful states of India, the Nizam and the Mahrattas; and both declared themselves in perfect readiness to exert their utmost force to crush the rising power of Mysore.

We shall here present the reader with a brief account of the progress and termination of this war, by which the British power was more than ever established on the continent of Asia, from a narrative drawn up by major Dirom, from journals and authentic documents.

It should be remembered, that the campaign here recorded was the third of our war with Tippoo Sultan. The first commenced in June, 1790, and concluded with that year. It was carried on below the Ghauts. The second campaign contained the capture of Bangalore, which fixed the seat of war in the enemy's country, and concluded with the retreat of lord Cornwallis from Seringapatam, towards the end of May 1791. The third commences almost from that point,

and terminates in March 1792. Observing, however, as the author very properly states, that, in the fine climate of Mysore campaigns are regulated rather by plans of operations, than by seasons.

The narrative commences with unfavourable circumstances; the retreat of the two armies under general Abercromby and lord Cornwallis; the loss of cannon in both; an epidemic distemper among the cattle and a dreadful scarcity of grain. These evils however vanished by degrees; the junction of the Mahrattas afforded a supply of necessaries, and arrangements were made for obtaining in future the most ample and regular provisions of bullocks and grain, and for replacing the battering guns. On the return of the army to the vicinity of Bangalore, the operations began, which were to secure the communications with the Carnatic, and reduce the power of the enemy in those parts. The British force was immediately and successfully employed to reduce Ousoor, Rayacotta, and the other hill forts commanding the Policode pass. The next object was the forts to the north-east of Bangalore, which interrupted the communication with the Nizam's army, and with the Carnatic by that route. These being soon reduced, Nundydroog, built on the summit of a mountain, about one thousand seven hundred feet in height, a place of magnitude and strength, was attacked, and after being besieged from September 22, was carried by assault on the 18th of October, in spite of obstacles which might reasonably have been deemed insurmountable.

By means of dispositions made for that purpose, supplies of all kinds now came in from the Carnatic. Penagra was taken at the end of October; and Kistnageri attacked on the 7th of November; this was almost the only enterprise that was not completely successful; the lower fort and pettah were taken, but the upper part maintained its defence, and the attack was relinquished. It seems that it could only have been carried by a coup-de-main, which unluckily failed. On the second of the same month, another instance of ill success attended us: the relief of Coimbatore having been prevented, that garrison was obliged to capitulate to Kummeer-ud-deen Khan, on terms which Tippoo did not afterwards fulfil.

Savendroog or the Rock of Death, bore witness, in the month of December, to the ardour and perseverance of the British troops. This fortress, standing in the way between Bangalore and Seringapatam, is thus described: It is "a vast mountain of rock, and is reckoned to rise above half a mile in perpendicular height, from a base of eight or ten miles in circumference. Embraced by walls on every side, and defended by cross walls and barriers wherever it was deemed accessible, this huge mountain had the farther advantage of being divided above a chasm which separates the upper part into two hills, which, having each their defences, from two citadels capable of being maintained, independent of the lower works, and affording a secure retreat, should encourage the garrison to hold out to the last extremity," p. 67. It is no less famed for its noxious atmosphere, occasioned by the surrounding hills and woods, than for its wonderful size and strength. Hence it derives its formidable name.

The sultan is said to have flattered himself that before this place "half the Europeans would die of sickness, the other half be killed in the attack;" he was, however, mistaken. The garrison, fortunately for us, trusted more to the strength of the place than to their own exertions, and, on the 21st of December, only the 11th day of the siege, this fortress, hitherto deemed impregnable, was taken by assault in

less than an hour, in open day, without the loss of a man, only one private soldier having been wounded.

Outredroog, and other forts, fell successively after this brilliant success. The forces of the allies were not equally fortunate during the same interval. The army of the Nizam, after a long siege of Gurramcondah drew off to join our forces, and only left the place blockaded. To make amends for this failure, the Mahratta army, under Purseran Bhow, assisted by our engineers, took Hooly Onore, Bankapoor, Simoga, and other places. By the latter end of January 1792, the whole allied force excepting the Bombay army, was assembled in the vicinity of Hooleadroog.

We come now to the operations against Seringapatam. On the first of February, 1792, the allies began their march, and at two o'clock on the 5th encamped across the valley of Milgotah, only six miles from the position of Tippoo before Seringapatam. It could not well be expected by the sultan that he should receive so early an attack as lord Cornwallis destined for him. His camp was strongly situated and fortified by a bound hedge, and several redoubts. Nevertheless, after causing his position to be reconnoitred in the morning of the 6th, the commander in chief issued orders for the attack that very evening. The army was to march at night in three divisions, and without cannon. "The plan of attack," says major Dirom, "was indeed bold beyond the expectation of our army: but, like a discovery in science, which excites admiration when disclosed, it had only to be known, to meet with general applause." The outlines of this great enterprise are generally known; the particulars cannot be detailed in this place, but are related with great clearness by the historian, and so illustrated by the attendant plans, that the circumstances cannot be mistaken.

The result of this operation was, that Tippoo was driven from his camp into Seringapatam, all his redoubts taken, and a lodgement established on the island, in a strong position, where lieutenant Stuart remained posted. All possible preparations were made, from this time, for taking the capital by assault; and they were such as probably would have been crowned with full success. On the 16th of February, the Bombay army, under general Abercromby, after overcoming various obstacles, joined the main army, and remained posted to the north-west of the city.

On the 19th it was stationed on the south side of the Caveri, in a situation that seemed to give the sultan much uneasiness. However, after attacking the advanced posts of this army on the night of the 21st, Tippoo made no farther effort; and on the 24th, when the preparations for the general assault were in great forwardness, it was announced that preliminaries of peace were settled. The conferences for this purpose had begun on the 15th; but the operations on both sides continued till the 24th. After the cessation of arms, which then took place, the conduct of Tippoo Sultan was so equivocal and suspicious, as to make it necessary on our part to renew the preparations for the siege. Overawed, at length, by the firmness and decision of lord Cornwallis, and probably alarmed by the discontent of his own people, the reluctant sultan submitted to all the terms proposed; and on the 19th of March, the copies of the definitive treaty were delivered in form, by his sons, to lord Cornwallis, and the agents of the allied princes.

The substance of the treaty was : 1st, That Tippoo was to cede one half of his dominions to the allied powers. 2d, That he was to pay three crores and thirty lacks of Rupees. 3d, That all prisoners were to be restored. 4th, That two of the sultan's three eldest sons were to become hostages for the due performance of the treaty.

Thus ended a war in which the advantages gained by us may be briefly stated thus: 1, Our most formidable enemy was so reduced by it, as to render our possessions in India both profitable and secure. 2, Madras was secured from invasion by possession of the passes, and covered by a territory defended by strong forts. 3, The value of Bombay was greatly enhanced by possessions gained on the Malabar coast, protected by Poligautcherry and the frontier of the Coorga Rajah. These advantages, it may be presumed, far overbalanced the expences of the war. By a statement of major Dirom it appears that Tippoo lost in this war sixty-seven forts, eight hundred and one cannons, and forty-nine thousand three hundred and forty men.

The ambition of Tippoo Sultan was for a time repressed by the victories which had forced him to sign the treaty above-mentioned; and his power diminished by the cessions he had been compelled to make: still, however, he retained the same enmity to the British government, and the desire of revenge, should any events afford him encouragement and an opportunity again to resume his arms. The war which took place between England and France, in consequence of the French revolution, seemed to present such an opportunity, and Tippoo willingly listened to the suggestions of French emissaries, that, by entering into an alliance with that republic, he might receive from it such aid and support as should not only enable him to regain the territory he had lost, but entirely to drive the English out of Asia, and share the dominions they had there acquired with the French.

In the month of February, 1798, a proclamation was issued by the governor-general of the isle of France, importing that an embassy had arrived at the Isle of France with letters from Tippoo Sultan, addressed not only to the governor of that island, but to the executive directory of France, proposing to conclude an offensive and defensive alliance with the French; to subsidize and to supply whatever troops the French might furnish to the sultan; and to commence against the British power in India a war of aggression, for which the sultan declared himself to be fully prepared. The proclamation concluded by offering encouragement to the subjects of France to enter into the service of Tippoo Sultan, on terms to be fixed with his ambassadors then on the spot. The circumstances attending this proclamation, on inquiry, established the fact, that Tippoo had actually concluded such an alliance as was mentioned in it with the French; and it also appeared that he had dispatched an embassy to Zemaun Shah, the sultan of the Abdalli, the object of which could be no other than to encourage that prince in the prosecution of his long intended invasion of Hindoostan. The French expedition to Egypt, likewise, in the summer of the same year, appeared to have for its ultimate object the execution of a plan of invasion of the British settlements in India, in conjunction with Tippoo.

In consequence of these transactions, which so evidently menaced hostility, lord Mornington, (now marquis of Wellesley) then governor-general of Bengal, addressed a letter to Tippoo Sultan, in which he expressed his surprise and concern at the intercourse he maintained,

and the alliance he had formed, with the French, proposing to send to him major Doveton, who might more fully and particularly explain the sole means which appeared effectual for removing all distrust and suspicion, and establishing peace and good understanding on the most durable foundations. His lordship, at the same time, expecting but little satisfaction from the negociation he had thus offered to open, determined to assemble without delay the armies on the coast of Coromandel and Malabar; and directed all his attention to strengthen and improve the defensive alliance concluded with the Nizam and the Peishwa of the Mahrattas. He gave peremptory orders to the government of Fort St. George to complete the equipment of their battering train, and to advance it with all practicable dispatch to the most eligible station on the frontier of the Carnatic, with a view of proceeding towards Seringapatam at the earliest possible period, if such a movement into Mysore should become necessary.

The letter of his lordship to Tippoo produced no other answer than vague professions of a wish to maintain peace and amity. The sultan, however, declined receiving major Doveton; alleging that no means more effectual could be devised than the treaties and engagements already entered into, to give stability to the foundations of friendship and harmony, or promote the welfare and advantage of all parties.

As it was evident that Tippoo meant only to gain time and increase his strength, lord Mornington determined to avail himself of the superiority of his force, and commence hostilities immediately. He accordingly, on the 3d of February, 1799, directed lieutenant-general Harris to enter the territory of the Mysore with the army assembled under his command; and on the same day issued orders to lieutenant-general Stuart to be prepared to co-operate from Malabar; and signified to rear-admiral Rainier, and to the several allies of the company, that he now considered the British government in India to be at war with Tippoo Sultan.

The army of Bombay, under the command of lieutenant-general Stuart, marched from Cananore on the 21st of February, arrived at the head of the Poodicherrum ghaut on the 25th of the same month, and took poste at Seedapoor and Seedasere on the 2d of March. The army of Madras, under lieutenant-general Harris, entered the territory of Mysore on the 5th of March, and commenced its operations by the reduction of several forts upon the frontier. On the 6th of March Tippoo Sultan passed his own frontier, and attacked a detachment of the army of Bombay, under lieutenant-general Stuart, the total strength of whose entire army did not amount to six thousand fighting men. The attack of the sultan's force was sustained by a body, not exceeding two thousand men, and the sultan's army was finally defeated and completely dispersed before general Stuart could collect the whole of his divided force.

After this signal defeat, Tippoo retreated precipitately to his camp at Periapatam, and remained there until the 11th of March without making any farther attempt to molest the army. He then returned to Seringapatam, whence in a few days he moved to meet lieutenant-general Harris, and the army of Madras, between which and the army of Tippoo an engagement took place on the 27th of March, in which the sultan was completely defeated, and driven from every post which he attempted to maintain. General Harris then proceeded on his

march without the least interruption, till, on the 30th, he crossed the Caveri, with his whole army, and, on the 5th of April, encamped two miles south-west of Seringapatam, the siege of which he immediately prepared to commence.

In the afternoon of the 14th of April, the army of Bombay joined the army before Seringapatam. A large body of the cavalry of the enemy, under the command of Kummeer-ud-deen Khan, had attended them closely during their march from Periapatam, but without having been able to make the slightest impression upon them. On the night of the 20th, general Harris received a letter from Tippoo Sultan, expressive of a desire to open a negotiation for peace. To this overture the general answered by transmitting a draft of preliminaries, founded on instructions with which he had been furnished by the governor-general; and which were, in substance, that Tippoo should deliver all Frenchmen, or natives of the island of Mauritius or Bourbon, or of any other countries now subject to France, as also all Europeans, natives or subjects of countries at war with Great Britain, to be treated as prisoners of war; that he should renounce all connection with the French nation; that he should cede one half of the dominions of which he was in possession before the war, to the allies; that he should pay two crores of rupees (above two millions sterling) and that he should send as hostages four of his sons, and four of the principal officers, together with half the required treasure, within forty-eight hours, to the camp of the allies. To these propositions the sultan replied, that they were weighty, and could not be brought to a conclusion without the intervention of ambassadors. General Harris, considering this as evidently intended to gain time, refused to admit any vakeels, or ambassadors, unless accompanied by the hostages and specie required.

On the 30th of April, the batteries began to batter in breach, and, on the evening of the 3d of May, had so much destroyed the walls, that the arrangement was made for assaulting the place on the following day, when the breach was reported practicable. The troops intended to be employed were stationed in the trenches early in the morning of the 4th, that no extraordinary movement might lead the enemy to expect the assault, which it was determined to make in the heat of the day, as the time best calculated to insure success, since the troops of the sultan would then be least prepared to oppose the attack. Agreeably to this disposition, at one o'clock the troops began to move from the trenches, crossed the rocky bed of the Caveri, and mounted to the assault, in despite of every obstacle which the difficulty of the passage and the resistance of the enemy could oppose. Their impetuous attack was completely successful. Resistance, however, continued to be made from the palace of Tippoo for some time after all firing had ceased from the works. Two of his sons were there, who, on assurance of safety, surrendered to the troops surrounding them; and guards were placed for the protection of the family, most of whom were in the palace. It was soon after reported, that Tippoo Sultan had fallen: Syed Saheb, Meer Saduc, Syed Gofar, and many other of his chiefs, were also slain. Measures were immediately adopted to stop the confusion, at first unavoidable in a city strongly garrisoned, crowded with inhabitants, with their property in ruins from the fire of a numerous artillery, and taken by assault. The princes were removed to the camp.

As it appeared important to ascertain the fate of the sultan, immediate search was made for his body, which, after much difficulty, was found, late in the evening, in one of the gates, under a heap of slain. He had been shot through the head, and bayoneted in three parts of his body, as he attempted to make his escape. The corpse was the next day recognized by the family, and interred with the honours due to his rank in the mausoleum of his father.

The treasure found in the palace was immense ; a prodigious quantity of grain, and military stores of all kinds, were likewise taken.

Thus ended the power and life of, perhaps, the most inveterate and formidable enemy the British government ever had in Hindoostan. His death has given a security to their possessions in that country, which they never could have had during his life. His territories have been divided between the British, the Nizam, and the Peishwa of the Mahrattas, except certain districts of Mysore, which have been assigned to a descendant of the ancient rajahs of Mysore, who is to pay an annual subsidy to the British government of seven lacks of pagodas (or seventy thousand pounds sterling) for the defence of his country. The British possess the fortress, city, and island of Seringapatam.

Tippoo Sultan was, when he fell, about fifty years of age. He was about five feet nine inches high ; his face was round, with large full eyes, and his countenance full of fire and animation. In his disposition he was naturally cruel, passionate, and revengeful. It is probable that his abilities have been overrated, and that he was neither so wise a statesman, nor so able a general, as he has been represented. Though he possessed a considerable share of prudence, and was not, in general, wanting either in promptitude or judgment, he at last fell a victim to ill-concerted schemes, dictated by his ambition and thirst of revenge.

THE PENINSULA OF INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES, CALLED THE FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000	} between	1 and 30 North latitude.	741,500
Breadth 1000		92 and 109 East longitude.	

BOUNDARIES.... This peninsula is bounded by Tibet and China on the north; by China and the Chinese sea on the east; by the same sea and the straits of Malacca on the south; and by the bay of Bengal and Hindoostan on the west. It contains the following provinces and countries.

	Chief Towns.	Length. Miles.	Breadth. Miles.
Assam	Ghergong	700	70
Meckley } Birman Empire	Munnypour	350	170
Arracan }	Aracan	500	200
Ava }	Ava	1050	600
Pegu }	Pegu	300	200
Martaban	Martaban	300	120
Siam*	Siam or Yuthia	600	220
Malacca	Malacca	560	180
Laos	Lanjan		
Cambodia	Cambodia	400	150
Siampa or Chiampa	Feneri		
Cochin-China	Hua	450	100
Tonquin	Cachas or Kesho	350	220

Of these countries we shall give an account in the order they are above enumerated.

The country of Assam, borders on that of the Grand Lama, or Bootan, and is divided by the Berhampooter into two parts, nearly equal. It is separated on the west from Dacca, the north-east quarter of Bengal, by a range of hills, which the Garrows inhabit; a people exhibiting those features of savage life, which are so frequently found in the more mountainous and inaccessible parts of Hindoostan. It is bounded on the south by Ava and Aracan; and, by an uncertain limit, it connects with China on the east. Dr. Wade thinks 60,000 square miles a very moderate calculation of its superficial extent. The whole country is a valley of great fertility, not only divided by the great stream of the Berhampooter, but every where intersected by numerous rivers. The products are cocoa, pepper, ginger, sugar, and various kinds of fruits, as oranges, citrons, limes, and pine apples. Gold is found in every part of the country by washing the sand of the rivers, and is

* Part of Siam, as far south as the city of Mergin, is also included in the Birman Empire.

one of the sources of the revenue : twelve thousand, or, according to some writers, twenty thousand persons are employed in searching for it. Elephants are very numerous in the extensive forests of this country, where six or seven hundred may be taken in a year.

Assam is the kingdom of a rajah who resides at Ghergong, the capital. This city is encompassed with a bound hedge of bamboos, and has four gates. The rajah's palace is surrounded by a causey planted on each side with a close hedge of bamboos, which serves instead of a wall ; and on the outside there is a ditch which is always full of water. The rajah's seat is adorned with lattice work and carving ; and within and without are placed plates of brass so well polished that when the rays of the sun strike upon them they shine like mirrors. It is an ascertained fact that 3000 carpenters, and 12,000 labourers were constantly employed in this work during two years before it was finished. When the rajah sits in this chamber or travels, instead of drums and trumpets they beat the *dhol* and *dand*. The latter is a round and thick instrument made of copper, and is certainly the same as the drum, which it was customary in the time of the ancient kings to beat in battle and marches.*

The people of Assam are said to be a base, unprincipled nation, who have no fixed religion, though they have some Bramins among them. They abstain from no kinds of meat, but even eat animals that have died a natural death. They are, however a stout and brave race, and have repeatedly resisted with success the invasions of the Moguls. They display considerable skill in embroidering with flowers, and in weaving velvet, and particularly a kind of silk. Great quantities of gunpowder are made in this kingdom, the soil abounding with nitre, and it is even pretended that the composition of it, and the use of fire-arms and artillery were the invention of this country ; an argument for which supposition has been drawn from the code of Gentoo laws, in which the use of weapons of fire is prohibited ; but what these were does not appear to be distinctly known. It is certain, however, that they have artillery and are very skilful in the use of it.

Of MECKLEY little is known but that it is a country abounding with extensive forests. It lies to the south of Assam, and extends to the frontiers of China. It is now subject to the Birman empire.

ARACAN or RECCAN lies to the south of Meckley, and was formerly governed by twelve princes, subject to the chief king, who resided in his capital. His palace was very large, and contained, as we are told, seven idols cast in gold, of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered with diamonds and other precious stones. The country produces great quantities of rice, cocoa nuts, bananas, oranges, and many other kinds of excellent fruits ; but the elephants, buffaloes, and tigers are said to be so numerous that many parts of it are uninhabited. The capital, Aracan, stands on a river of the same name, which runs through the city. The inhabitants are idolaters, worshipping images of baked clay. The women are tolerably fair, but the longest ears are reckoned the most beautiful, and in these they wear many rings. At present Aracan makes a part of the empire of Ava, having been conquered by Minderagee, the present sovereign of that country, in 1783. PEGU is about 300 English miles in length, and 200 in breadth. Its capital, Pegu, on a river of the same name, was, about the year 1600, one of the largest and most splendid and populous

* Pennant's View of Hindoostan, vol. ii. p. 360.

cities in all Asia. The emperor of this country was anciently a very rich and powerful monarch; but about the beginning of the seventeenth century, Pegu was conquered by the king of Ava or Birmah, and the kingdoms united; till about the year 1740, when the Peguers rebelled, and in a few years subdued, in their turn, the kingdom of Ava. In 1754, however, the Birmans, under Alompra, who became their sovereign, shook off the yoke, and again subdued Pegu, which now forms a part of the Birman empire.

AVA, BIRMAH, or as it is called by the natives, Miamia, is bounded on the west by a ridge of lofty mountains which divide it from Aracan; on the north-east and east by China and Siam; and on the south by Pegu. The Birman empire consists of Ava, Pegu, Aracan, Meckley, and part of Siam, which are now all subject to one sovereign. It is difficult to ascertain the exact limits of this empire, but according to major Symes, in his account of an embassy to Ava, in the year 1795, it appears to include the space between the 9th and 26th degrees of north latitude, and between the 92d and 107th degrees of longitude east of Greenwich; being about 1050 geographical miles in length, and 600 in breadth. The number of cities, towns, and villages, in the Birman dominions, major Symes was assured by a person who might be supposed to know, amounts to 8000; from which he concludes, that the population of the whole empire is not less than 17,000,000. Major Francklin, a later traveller, estimates the population of the Birman dominions, at 11,200,000 persons.

The climate of Ava is extremely salubrious; the seasons are regular, and the extremes of heat and cold seldom experienced; at least the duration of the intense heat, which immediately precedes the commencement of the rainy season, is very short. The soil is remarkably fertile, and produces as luxuriant crops of rice as are to be found in the finest parts of Bengal. Sugar-canes, tobacco of a superior quality, indigo, cotton, and different tropical fruits, in perfection, are all indigenous products of this fertile country. The kingdom of Ava abounds in minerals: it contains mines of gold, silver, rubies, and sapphires; it also affords amethysts, garnets, very beautiful chrysolites, jasper, loadstone, and marble. An extensive trade is carried on between the capital of the Birman dominions and Yunan in China. The principal article of export from Ava is cotton. Amber, ivory, precious stones, betel-nut, and the edible nests brought from the eastern Archipelago, are also articles of commerce.

The general disposition of the Birmans is strikingly contrasted with that of the natives of Hindoostan, from whom they are separated only by a narrow ridge of mountains, in many places admitting of an easy intercourse. Notwithstanding the small extent of this barrier, the physical difference between the nations could scarcely be greater, had they been situated at the opposite extremities of the globe. The Birmans are a lively inquisitive race, active, irascible, and impatient; the character of their Bengal neighbours it is well known is the reverse. The unworthy passion of jealousy, which prompts most nations of the east to immure their women within the walls of a haram, and surround them with guards, seems to have scarcely any influence over the minds of this extraordinary and more liberal people. The wives and daughters of the Birmans are not concealed from the sight of men, and are suffered to have as free intercourse with each other as the rules of European society admit. The Birmans are extremely fond both of poetry and music. Their religion, is, in fact, that

of the Hindoos, though they are not votaries of Brahma, but sectaries of Boodh.

The emperor of Ava, like the other sovereigns of the east, is a despotic monarch. The prevailing characteristic of the Birman court is pride. Like the sovereign of China, his majesty of Ava acknowledges no equal. There are no hereditary dignities or employments in the Birman government. All honours and offices, on the demise of the possessor, revert to the crown. The titles the monarch assumes in his public acts are, the "Lord of earth and air; the monarch of extensive countries; the proprietor of all kinds of precious stones: the king who performs the ten duties incumbent on all kings; the master of the white, red, and mottled elephants, whose praises are repeated as far as the influence of the sun and moon extends."

Alompra, who, as mentioned above, in 1754 recovered the independence of his country, and subdued the Peguers, was a Birman originally of low extraction, who collected a band of resolute adventurers, defeated the Peguers, and rendered himself sovereign of Ava. He died in 1760, and was succeeded by Namdogee Praw, who died in 1764, leaving the throne to his brother, Shembuan. The present sovereign is named Shembuan Minderagee Praw. He is the fourth son of Alompra, and ascended the throne in 1782.

MARTABAN is a country to the south-east of Pegu, and was formerly an independent kingdom, but now makes a part of the empire of Ava. The soil is fertile in rice, fruits, and various kinds of wine. The capital of the same name, was once a much frequented sea-port, and one of the most flourishing commercial towns in the east, being situate on a capacious bay, affording an excellent harbour for the largest ships; but after the conquest of the country by the emperor of Ava, he caused a number of vessels, filled with stones, to be sunk at its entrance, so that it is now only navigable for small vessels. The chief trade is now in earthen ware and fish.

The kingdom of SIAM is rich and flourishing, and approaches, in its government, policy, and the quickness and acuteness of its inhabitants, very near to the Chinese. It is surrounded by high mountains, which, on the east side, separate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos; on the west from Pegu; and on the north from Ava, or more properly from Jangoma: on the south it is washed by the river Siam, and joins the peninsula of Malacca, the north-west part of which is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and it is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants of both sexes are more modest than any found in the rest of this peninsula. Great care is taken in the education of their children. Their marriages are simple, and performed by their talapoins, or priests, sprinkling holy water on the couple, and repeating some prayers. The government is despotic; servants must appear before their masters in a kneeling posture; and the mandarins are prostrate before the king. Siam, the capital, is represented as a large city, but scarcely one-sixth part of it is inhabited: and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bangkok, which stands about 18 leagues to the south of Siam, and 12 miles from the sea, is the only place towards the coast that is fortified with walls, batteries, and brass cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which stands on the east side of the peninsula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninsula of MALACCA is a large country, and contains several kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, till lately, were, it is

said, the real masters and sovereigns of the whole peninsula, being in possession of the capital (Malacca.) The inhabitants, in the internal parts, differ little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the purest of any spoken in the Indies. We are told by the latest travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephant's teeth, canes, and gums.

It has been supposed that it is the Golden Chersonesus, or peninsula of the ancients. Its situation is certainly excellent for trade with India; so that when it was first discovered by the Portuguese, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richest city in the east, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at present is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chinese. This degeneracy of the Malaysians, who were formerly an industrious, ingenious people, is easily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whose interest it is that they should never recover from their present state of ignorance and slavery.

Malacca was taken from the Dutch by the English, in August, 1795, before which the latter used to carry on a smuggling kind of trade in their country ships, from the coast of Coromandel and the Bay of Bengal, to Malacca. This commerce was connived at by the Dutch governor and council, who little regarded the orders of their superiors, provided they could enrich themselves.

The kingdom of LAOS, or LAHOS, formerly included that of Jangoma, or Jangomay; but that is now subject to Ava: we know few particulars of it that can be depended on. It is said to be immensely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the gross superstitions of the east, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one sovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is absolutely despotic, and lives in inexpressible pomp and magnificence: but is of the Lama religion, and often the slave of his priests and ministers.

CAMBODIA, or CAMBOJA, is a country little known to the Europeans; but, according to the best information, its greatest length, from north to south, is about four hundred English miles; and its greatest breadth, from west to east, about one hundred and fifty miles. This kingdom has a spacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the country, on account of its sultry air, and the pestiferous gnats, serpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its soil, commodities, trade, animals, and products, by sea and land, are much the same with those of the other kingdoms of this vast peninsula. The betel, a creeping plant of particular flavour, and, as they say, an excellent remedy for all those diseases that are common to the inhabitants of the East Indies, is the highest luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peasant; but it is very unpalatable and disagreeable to the Europeans. The same barbarous magnificence, despotism of the king, and ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the rest of the peninsula.

Between Cambodia and Cochin-China, lies the little kingdom of SIAMPA or CHIAMPA, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chinese, and seem therefore to be somewhat more civilized than their neighbours. The king resides at Fereni, the capital.

COCHIN-CHINA, or the western China, is situated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to some authors, about five hundred miles in length; but it is much less extensive in its breadth from east to

west. Laos, Cambodia, and Siampa, as well as some other smaller kingdoms, are said to be tributary to Cochin-China. The manners and religion of the people seem to be originally Chinese, and they are much given to trade. The king is said to be immensely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the East Indies. Formerly, Cochin-China was under a sort of obedience to the sovereign of Tonquin; but a daring leader arose, who was acknowledged as king and the country became independent.

TONQUIN is only separated from Cochin-China by a small river; it produces little or no corn or wine, but is the most healthful country of all the peninsula. Rubies, topazes, amethysts, and other precious stones, are found here. In some places, especially towards the north, the inhabitants have swellings in their throats, said to be owing to the badness of their water. The principal river is the Holi Kian, which, after receiving the Li-Sien, passes by Cachao, or Kesho, the capital, a city which, according to Dampier, resembles in its form and appearance the towns of China, and is considerably populous. The Tonquinese are excellent mechanics, and fair traders; but greatly oppressed by their king and great lords. The king engrosses the trade, and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquinese are fond of lacker houses, which are unwholesome and poisonous. The people in the south are a savage race, and go almost naked, with large silver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or shell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin-China, the two sexes are scarcely distinguishable by their dress, which resembles that of the Persians. The people of quality are fond of English broad cloth, red or green, and others wear a dark coloured cotton cloth.

Tonquin, with the countries stretching from it southward to the Gulf of Siam, was, in the first epoch of its history, a part of the Chinese empire; the governors of which acquired, in time, a sort of hereditary possession. They afterwards threw off their allegiance, and at the end of a long series of struggles, established their independence. For a long time the civil authority was usurped by a hereditary officer called the Chua, who held the nominal sovereign in subjection, and even directed which of his children should succeed him. Upon the death of a Chua, who was assassinated by one of his confidants, he leaving no children, a civil war was kindled by his relations, who disputed the succession. Amid the confusion, the king found means to assert his rights; to abridge the power of the Chua; and to render the succession to the office no longer hereditary, but dependent upon himself.

The king resides generally in the capital, Cachao, which is situated near the centre of the kingdom. The palace is a vast structure, and has a fine arsenal. The English have a very flourishing factory on the north side of the city.

THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

THIS empire includes China Proper, Chinese Tartary, and Tibet; the Chinese emperors of the Tartarian race having, within the last century, greatly extended their authority and influence over the wandering hordes inhabiting the countries to the west of China. We shall treat of each of these divisions of the Chinese empire separately.

CHINA PROPER.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 1450	} between	20 and 42 north latitude.	}	1,298,000
Breadth 1260		98 and 123 east longitude.		

NAME....The Chinese call their country Tchong Qua, which signifies the kingdom of the centre, as their vanity leads them to consider China as the most distinguished region of the world, and situate in the middle of it. The name of China (in the east Chin, or Tsin) is derived, by some, from one of their ancient monarchs of that name, who reigned, it is said, about two centuries before the Christian æra; and by others, from the Chinese word *chin*, signifying silk.

BOUNDARIES...China is bounded by Chinese Tartary and an amazing stone wall of five hundred leagues in length, on the north; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America, on the east; by the Chinesian Sea, south; and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Tibet and Asiatic Russia, on the west.

DIVISION AND POPULATION....The empire of China is divided into fifteen provinces, each of which might, for its extent, fertility, population, and opulence, rank as a distinct kingdom. The following statement of the division, population, and extent of China Proper, was delivered to lord Macartney, at his request, by Chow-ta-Zhin, a Chinese mandarin, and is founded on authentic documents, taken from one of the public offices in Peking.

PROVINCES.					Population.	Sq. Miles.	Acres.
Pe-che-lee	38,000,000	58,949	37,727,360
Kiang-nan	32,000,000	92,961	59,495,040
2 provinces }	19,000,000	72,176	46,192,640
Kiang-see	21,000,000	39,150	25,056,000
Tche-kiang	15,000,000	57,480	34,227,200
Fo-chen	14,000,000	144,770	92,652,800
Hou-pe	} Hou-quang	.	.	.	13,000,000		
Hou-nan		.	.	.	25,000,000	65,104	41,666,500
Ho nan	24,000,000	65,104	41,666,560
Shang tung	27,000,000	55,268	35,371,520
Shan-see	18,000,000	154,008	98,565,120
Shen-see	12,000,000		
Kansore	27,000,000	166,800	106,752,000
Se-chueen	21,000,000	79,456	50,851,840
Canton	10,000,000	78,250	50,080,000
Quang-see	8,000,000	107,969	69,100,160
Yu-nan	9,000,000	64,554	41,314,560
Koei-cheou			
Total					333,000,000	1,297,999	830,719,360

With respect to this statement, sir George Staunton, who compiled the judicious and authentic account of the late English embassy to China observes, that "the extent of the provinces is ascertained by astronomical observations, as well as by admeasurement. The number of individuals is regularly taken in each division of a district by a tything-man, or every tenth master of a family. Those returns are collected by officers resident so near as to be capable of correcting any gross mistake; and all the returns are lodged in the great registry at Pekin. Though the general statement is strictly the result of those returns added to each other, which seem little liable to error, or taken separately, to doubt, yet the amount of the whole is so prodigious as to stagger belief. It must, however, be recollected, that population in China is not subject to be materially diminished by war. No private soldiers, and a few officers only, natives of the ancient provinces of China, were engaged in the conquest of Western Tartary, or in the Tibet war. Celibacy is rare, even in the military professions, among the Chinese. The number of manufacturers, whose occupations are not always favourable to health, whose constant confinement to particular spots, and sometimes in a close or tainted atmosphere, must be injurious, and whose residence in towns exposes them to irregularities, bears but a very small proportion to that of husbandmen in China. In general there seem to be no other bounds to Chinese populousness than those which the necessity of subsistence may put to it. These boundaries are certainly more enlarged than in other countries. The whole surface of the empire is, with trifling exceptions, dedicated to the production of food for man alone. There is no meadow, and very little pasture, nor are fields cultivated in oats, beans, or turnips, for the support of cattle of any kind. Few parks or pleasure-grounds are seen, excepting those belonging to the emperor. Little land is taken up for roads, the chief communication being by water. There are no commons or lands suffered to lie waste by the neglect, or the caprice, or for the sport, of great proprietors. No arable land lies fallow. The soil, under a hot and fertilizing sun, yields double crops, in consequence of adapting the culture to the soil, and supplying its defects by mixture with other earths, by manure, watering, and careful and useful industry of every kind. The labour of man is little diverted from that industry to minister to the luxuries of the opulent and powerful, or in employments of no real use. Even the soldiers of the Chinese army, except during the short intervals of the guards which they are called to mount, or the exercises or other occasional services which they perform, are mostly employed in agriculture. The quantity of subsistence is increased also by converting more species of animals and vegetables to that purpose than is usual in other countries. From a consideration of the influence of all these causes, the great population of China, asserted in this statement, will not, perhaps, appear surprising, though it appears from it that every square mile in that vast empire contains upon an average, about one-third more inhabitants, being upwards of three hundred, than are found upon an equal quantity of land, also upon an average, in the most populous country in Europe."

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.....The appearance of the country in China, is very diversified, though in general it is level and most assiduously cultivated, yet according to Du Halde, the pro-

vinces of Yunan, Koeicheou, Sechueen, and Fochien, are so mountainous as greatly to obstruct cultivation; and that of Tchekiang has lofty and precipitous mountains on the west. In the province of Kiangnan there is a district full of high mountains, which are also numerous in the provinces of Shensee and Shansee. These mountains do not appear to be known to Europeans by any appropriate names.

FORESTS....Such is the industry of the Chinese, that they are not encumbered with forests or woods, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They suffer, however, none to grow but for ornament and use, or on the sides of mountains, from whence the trees when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

LAKES....China contains several extensive lakes, as that of Tongtinhoo, in the province of Houquang, more than eighty leagues in circumference, and that of Poyanghoo, in the province of Kiangsee, thirty leagues in circuit. The lakes of Weechaunghoo and Taihoo are also remarkable for their picturesque scenery. On some of these lakes a singular method of fishing is practised. Thousands of small boats and rafts are sometimes seen on them, and in each boat about ten or a dozen birds, which, at a signal from the owner, plunge into the water, and bring out in their bills fish of an enormous size. They are so well trained that it does not require either ring or cord round their throats to prevent them from swallowing any portion of their prey, except what the master is pleased to return them for encouragement and food. The boat used by these fishermen is of a remarkably light make, and is often carried to the lake, together with the fishing-birds, by the men who are there to be supported by it.

RIVERS....The two principal rivers of China are the Hoanho and the Kianku; the former called the Yellow River, from its discolourment by the mud its waters bring down, has its sources among the mountains of Tibet, and falls into the Yellow Sea, after a course of two thousand one hundred and fifty miles. The Kianku rises near the source of the Hoanho, and, after passing the city of Nanking, falls into the sea about one hundred miles to the south of the mouth of the Hoanho, having traversed a course of two thousand two hundred miles. These two rivers are considered as the longest in the world. There are many other rivers of inferior note in China; but the water of this country is in general very indifferent, and, in some places, must be boiled to make it fit for use.

CANALS....These are sufficient to entitle the ancient Chinese to the character of a most wise and industrious people. The commodiousness and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn stone on the sides; and they are so deep, that they carry large vessels, and sometimes extend above one thousand miles in length. Those vessels are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; and it has been thought by some, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furnished with stone quays, and sometimes with bridges of an amazing construction. The navigation is slow, and the vessels sometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perseverance, for the safety of the passengers, in case a canal is crossed by a rapid river, or exposed to torrents from the mountains. These canals, and the variety that is seen upon their borders, render China delightful in a very high degree, as well as fertile, in places that are not so by nature.

METALS, MINERALS....China (if we are to believe some naturalists) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper, called by the Chinese *petong*, is peculiar to itself, but we know of no extraordinary quality it possesses. Tutenag is another peculiar metal, a mine of which, in the province of Houquang, yielded many hundred weight in the course of a few days. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government is that of not introducing a superabundance of gold and silver, for fear of diminishing industry. Their gold mines, therefore, are but slightly worked, and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains the people pick up in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan.

Iron, lead, and tin mines, must be very common, since these metals are sold at a low rate throughout the empire ; and it appears, from very authentic documents, that the use of iron, in particular, was very ancient there : quarries and coal-mines abound in almost every province. Coals are found in great plenty in the mountains of the provinces of Shensee, Shansee, and Pechelee; they are used by workmen in their furnaces, in all kitchens, and in the stoves with which the Chinese warm their apartments during the winter.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE....The climate of China varies according to the situation of the places. Towards the north it is cold, in the middle mild, and in the south hot. The soil is, either by nature or art, fruitful of every thing that can minister to the necessities, conveniences, or luxuries of life. Agriculture, in this country, according to the testimony of all travellers, is carried to the utmost degree of perfection. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious almost beyond description.

VEGETABLES....Many of the rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and some are peculiar to itself.

The tallow-tree has a short trunk, a smooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, shaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil serves the natives as candles ; but they smell strong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are some which yield a kind of flour ; some partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of some is poisonous, but affords the finest varnish in the world. After all that can be said of these, and many other beautiful and useful trees, the Chinese, notwithstanding their industry, are so wedded to their ancient customs, that they are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The same may be said of their richest fruits, which in general, are far from being so delicious as those of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chinese never practising grafting or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw silk, which so much abounds in China ; and, above all, the *tea plant*, or shrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent luxuriance. "Vast tracts of hilly land (says sir George Staunton) are planted with it, particularly in the province of Fochén. Its perpendicular growth is impeded for the convenience of collecting its leaves, which is done first in spring, and twice afterwards in the course of the summer. Its long and tender branches spring up almost from the root without any intervening

naked trunk. It is bushy like a rose-tree, and the expanded petals of the flower bear some resemblance to that of the rose. Every information received concerning the tea-plant concurred in affirming that its qualities depended both upon the soil in which it grew, and the age at which the leaves were plucked off the tree, as well as upon the management of them afterwards. The largest and oldest leaves, which are the least esteemed, and destined for the use of the lowest classes of the people, are often exposed to sale with little previous manipulation, and still retaining that kind of vegetable taste which is common to most fresh plants, but which vanishes in a little time, whilst the more essential flavour, characteristic of each particular vegetable, remains long without diminution. The young leaves undergo no inconsiderable preparation before they are delivered to the purchaser. Every leaf passes through the fingers of a female, who rolls it up almost to the form it had assumed before it became expanded in the progress of its growth. It is afterwards placed upon thin plates of earthen-ware or iron, made much thinner than can be executed by artists out of China. It is confidently said, in the country, that no plates of copper are ever employed for that purpose. Indeed, scarcely any utensil used in China is of that metal, the chief application of which is for coin. The earthen or iron plates are placed over a charcoal fire, which draws all remaining moisture from the leaves, rendering them dry and crisp. The colour and astringency of green tea is thought to be derived from the early period at which the leaves are plucked, and which, like unripe fruit, are generally green and acrid.

The Portuguese had the use of tea long before the English; but it was introduced among the latter before the restoration, as mention is made of it in the first act of parliament that settled the excise on the king for life, in 1660. Catharine of Lisbon, wife to Charles II, rendered the use of it common at his court. The ginseng, so famous among the Chinese as the universal remedy, and monopolised even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in North America. When brought to Europe, it is little distinguished for its healing qualities; and this instance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The ginseng, however, is a native of the Chinese Tartary.

ANIMALS....The lion, according to Du Halde, is not found in China, but there are tigers, rhinoceroses, bears, buffaloes, and wild boars. A very small breed of camels, some of which are not higher than horses, is found here. There are also several species of deer, among which the musk deer is a singular animal, which is likewise a native of Tibet.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL....Few natural curiosities present themselves in China, that have not been comprehended under preceding articles. Some volcanoes, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Linesung is said sometimes to make so furious a discharge of fire and ashes, as to occasion a tempest in the air; and some of their lakes are said to petrify fishes when put into them.

The artificial mountains present, on their tops, temples, monasteries, and other edifices. The Chinese bridges cannot be sufficiently admired; they are built sometimes upon barges strongly chained together, yet so as to be parted, and to let the vessels pass that sail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and consist only of one arch; that over the river Safrany is four

hundred cubits long and five hundred high, though a single arch, and joins two mountains; and some in the interior parts of the empire are said to be still more stupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next species of artificial curiosities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman style of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful, and erected to the memory of their great men, with vast labour and expence. They are said in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their sepulchral monuments make likewise a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe, under the name of pagodas, are vast embellishments to the face of their country. They seem to be constructed by a regular order, and all of them are finished with exquisite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nanking, which is two hundred feet high, and forty in diameter, is the most admired. It is called the Porcelain Tower, because it is lined with Chinese tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the fanciful taste in which they are built, for their capaciousness, their whimsical ornaments, and the ugliness of the idols they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal festivals. A bell at Pekin weighs one hundred and twenty thousand pounds, but its sound is said to be disagreeable. Their buildings, except the pagodas, being confined to no order, and susceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleasing elegance, not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and present a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.... The Chinese, in their persons, are middle-sized, their faces broad, their eyes black and small, their noses blunt, and turned upwards; they have high cheek-bones, and large lips. The Chinese have particular ideas of beauty; they pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion, towards the north, is fair, but towards the south is swarthy; corpulence is esteemed a beauty in a man, but considered as a palpable blemish in the fair sex, who aim at preserving a slimness and delicacy of shape. Men of quality and learning who are not much exposed to the sun, are delicately complexioned; and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to shew that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump rosy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate, though florid, complexion. The smallness of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no swathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accomplishment; so that when they grow up, they may be said to totter rather than to walk.

"Of most of the women we saw (says sir George Staunton) even in the middle and inferior classes, the feet were unnaturally small, or rather truncated. They appeared as if the fore-part of the foot had been accidentally cut off, leaving the remainder of the usual size, and bandaged like the stump of an amputated limb. They undergo, indeed much torment, and cripple themselves in a great measure, in imitation of ladies of higher rank, among whom it is the custom to stop by pressure, the growth of the ankle as well as foot from the ear-

liest infancy; and leaving the great toe in its natural position, forcibly to bend the others, and retain them under the foot, till at length they adhere to, as if buried in the sole, and can no more be separated. It is said, indeed, that this practice is now less frequent than formerly, at least among the lower sort in the northern provinces."

"The exterior demeanour of the Chinese (observes the same writer) is very ceremonious. It consists of various evolutions of the body, and inclinations of the head, in bending or stiffening the knee, and in joining or disengaging the hands, all which are considered as the perfection of good breeding and deportment; while the nations who are not expert in such discipline are thought to be little better than barbarians. When, however, those Chinese ceremonies are once shown off, the performers of them relapse into ease and familiarity. In their address to strangers, they are not restrained by any bashfulness, but present themselves with an easy, confident air, as if they considered themselves as the superiors, and as if nothing in their manners or appearance could be deficient or inaccurate."

The Chinese, in general, have been represented as the most dishonest, low, thieving set in the world; employing their natural quickness only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, especially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great ease, particularly the English; but they observe that none but a Chinese can cheat a Chinese. They are fond of law disputes, beyond any people in the world. Their hypocrisy is without bounds; and the men of property among them practice the most avowed bribery, and the lowest meanness, to obtain preferment. It should, however, be remembered, that some of the late accounts of China have been drawn up by those who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire but the sea-port towns, in which they probably met with many knavish and designing people. But it seems not just to attempt to characterise a great nation by a few instances of this kind, though well attested; and we appear not to be sufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China, to form an accurate judgment of the manners and character of the inhabitants. By some of the Jesuit missionaries, the Chinese seem to have been too much extolled, and by latter writers too much degraded.

DRESS... This varies according to the distinction of ranks; and is entirely under the regulation of the law, which has even fixed the colours that distinguish the different conditions. The emperor, and princes of the blood, have alone a right to wear yellow; certain mandarins are entitled to wear satin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony; in general they are clothed in black, blue, or violet. White is only worn for mourning; and cannot be too much soiled for the occasion, to avoid every appearance of personal care and ornament. The colour to which the common people are confined, is blue or black; and their dress is always composed of plain cotton cloth. The men wear caps on their heads, of the fashion of a bell: those of quality are ornamented with jewels. The rest of their dress is easy and loose, consisting of a vest and sash, a coat or gown thrown over them, silk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. Dress is seldom altered in China from fancy or fashion. Even among the ladies there is little variety in their dresses; except, perhaps, in the disposition of the flowers or other ornaments of the head. They generally wear over a silk netting, which is in lieu of linen, a waistcoat and drawers of silk, trimmed or lined in cold weather with furs.

Above this is worn a long satin robe, which is gracefully gathered round the waist and confined with a sash. These different parts of their apparel are usually each of a different colour, in the selection and contrast of which the wearers chiefly display their taste. They suffer their nails to grow, but reduce their eye-brows to an arched line.

MARRIAGES....The parties never see each other, in China, till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when they are perfect children. When the nuptials are celebrated, the lady is carried (as yet unseen by the bridegroom) in a gilt and gaudy chair, hung round with festoons of artificial flowers; and followed by relations, attendants and servants, bearing the paraphernalia, being the only portion given with a daughter in marriage by her parents. Next to being barren, the greatest scandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of poor family happens to have three or four girls successively, it not unfrequently happens that she will expose them on the high roads, or throw them into a river; for, in China, parents who cannot support their female children are allowed to cast them into the river; but they fasten a gourd to the child, that it may float on the water; and there are often compassionate people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children to save them from death.

FUNERALS....The Chinese, among other superstitions, are particularly scrupulous about the time and place of burying their dead. The delay occasioned before these difficult points are ascertained, has often long detained the coffins of the rich from their last repository; many are seen in houses and gardens under temporary roofs, to preserve them in the mean time from the weather: but necessity forces the poor to overcome many of their scruples in this respect; and to deposit at once, and with little ceremony, the remains of their relations in their final abode.

The following is a description of a Chinese funeral procession, observed by sir George Staunton, passing out at one of the gates of Peking: "The procession was preceded by several performers on solemn music; then followed a variety of insignia, some of silken colours, and painted boards with devices and characters, displaying the rank and office of him who was no more. Immediately before the corpse the male relations walked, each supported by friends, occupied in preventing them from giving way to the excesses and extravagance of grief, to which the appearance of their countenance implied that they were prone. Over the mourners were carried umbrellas with deep curtains hanging from the edges. Several persons were employed to burn circular pieces of paper, covered chiefly with tin foil, as they passed by burying grounds and temples. These pieces, in the popular opinion, like the coin to Charon for being conveyed to the Elysian fields, are understood to be convertible, in the next stage of existence, into the means of providing the necessities of life."

The public burying grounds are extremely extensive, owing to the respect paid to the dead by the Chinese, which prevents them from opening a new grave upon any spot where the traces of a former one remain upon the surface.

Every Chinese keeps in his house a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather; before which they frequently burn incense, and prostrate themselves: and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceased is added.

CHIEF CITIES, EDIFICES.....The empire is said to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton. Peking, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary residence of the emperors, is situated in a very fertile plain, twenty leagues distant from the great wall. It is an oblong square, and is divided into two cities; that which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, because the houses were given to the Tartars when the present family came to the throne; and they, refusing to suffer the Chinese to inhabit it, forced them to live without the walls, where they in a short time built a new city; which, by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, six leagues in compass. The walls and gates of Peking are of the surprising height of fifty cubits, so that they hide the whole city; and are so broad, that centinels are placed upon them on horseback; for there are slopes within the city of considerable length, by which horsemen may ascend the walls, and in several places there are houses built for the guards. The gates, which are nine in number, are neither embellished with statues, nor other carving, all their beauty consisting in their prodigious height, which at a distance gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble; and the rest with large bricks cemented with excellent mortar. Most of the streets are built in a direct line: the largest are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The shops where they sell silks and China-ware generally take up the whole street, and afford a very agreeable prospect. Each shop-keeper places before his shop, on a small kind of pedestal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varnished, and often gilt, on which are written in large characters, the names of the several commodities he sells. These being placed on each side of the street, at nearly an equal distance from each other, have a very pretty appearance: but the houses are poorly built in front, and very low; most of them having only a ground-floor, and none exceeding one story above it. Of all the buildings in this great city, the most remarkable is the imperial palace; the grandeur of which does not consist so much in the nobleness and elegance of the architecture, as the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly disposed: for within the walls are not only the emperor's house, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houses of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill contrived. F. Artier, a French Jesuit, who was indulged with a sight of the palace and gardens, says that the palace is more than three miles in circumference; and that the front of the building shines with gilding, paint, and varnish, while the inside is set off and furnished with every thing that is most beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raised, at proper distances, artificial mountains, from twenty to sixty feet high: which form a number of small vallies plentifully watered by canals; which uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful and magnificent barks sail on these pieces of water; and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are said to have any resemblance to each other: which diversity produces a very pleasing effect. Every valley has its house of pleasure, large enough to lodge one of our greatest lords in Europe, with all his retinue: many of these houses are built with cedar, brought, at a vast expence, the distance of 500 leagues. Of these palaces, or houses of pleasure, there

are more than 200 in this vast inclosure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky island, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent structure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly such as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with rustic pieces of rock, disposed with such art as exactly to resemble the wildness of nature.

The estimated population of Peking was carried in the last century, by the Jesuit Grimaldi, as quoted by Gimelli Carreri, to sixteen millions. Another missionary reduces, at least that of the Tartar city, to one million and a quarter. According to the best information given to the late English embassy, the whole was about three millions. The low houses of Peking seem scarcely sufficient for so vast a population; but very little room is occupied by a Chinese family, at least in the middling and lower classes of life. A Chinese dwelling is generally surrounded by a wall six or seven feet high. Within this inclosure a whole family of three generations, with all their respective wives and children, will frequently be found. One small room is made to serve for the individuals of each branch of the family; sleeping in different beds, divided only by mats hanging from the ceiling. One common room is used for eating.

Nanking, which was the royal residence till the fifteenth century (its name signifying the southern court, as Peking does the northern) is said to be a considerably more extensive city than Peking, the walls being about seventeen miles in circuit; but its population does not correspond to its extent. The most remarkable of its edifices is the famous porcelain tower already mentioned. The well known stuff called nankeen derives its name from this city.

Canton is the largest port in China, and the only port that has been much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is above five miles in circumference, with very pleasant walks around it. From the top of some adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine prospect of the country. It is beautifully interspersed with mountains, little hills, and vallies all green: and these again pleasantly diversified with small towns, villages, high towers, temples, the seats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and small branches from the river Ta; on which are numberless boats and junks, sailing different ways through the most fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by several iron gates, and withinside of each there is a guard-house. The streets of Canton are very straight, but generally narrow, paved with flag stones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well stocked with images. The streets of Canton are so crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet a woman of any fashion is seldom to be seen, unless by chance when coming out of her chair. There are great numbers of market places for fish, flesh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of provisions, which are sold very cheap. There are many private walks about the skirts of the town, where those of the better sort have their houses; which are very little frequented by Europeans, whose business lies chiefly in the trading part of the city, where there are only shops and ware-houses. Few of the Chinese traders of any substance keep their families in houses where they do business; but either in the city, in the more remote suburbs, or farther up in the country. They

have all such a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the streets, but in shops and places of public business, nor do any of their windows look towards those of their neighbours. The shops of those that deal in silk are very neat, make a fine show, and are all in one place ; for tradesmen or dealers in one kind of goods herd together in the same street. It is computed that there are in this city, and its suburbs, 1,200,000 people ; and there are often 5000 trading vessels lying before the city.

PUBLIC ROADS.... The security of travellers, and an easy mode of conveyance for passengers and merchandise of every kind, are objects to which particular attention seems to have been paid by administration in China. The manner in which the public roads are managed greatly contributes to the former.

These roads are paved in all the southern provinces, and some of the northern. Vallies have been filled up, and passages have been cut through rocks and mountains, in order to make commodious highways, and to preserve them as nearly as possible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees ; and sometimes with walls eight or ten feet in height, to prevent travellers from entering into the fields. Openings are left in them at certain intervals, which give a passage into cross roads that conduct to different villages. On all the great roads, covered seats are erected at proper distances, where the traveller may shelter himself from the inclemency of the winter, or the excessive heats of the summer.

There is no want of inns on the principal highways, and even on the cross roads. The former are very spacious, but they are badly supplied with provisions. People are even obliged to carry beds with them, or to sleep on a plain mat. Government requires of those who inhabit them, to give lodging only to those who ask and pay for it.

We met with many turrets (says Mr. Bell) called post-houses, erected at certain distances one from another, with a flag-staff, on which is hoisted the imperial pendant. These places are guarded by soldiers, who run from one post to another with great speed, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are in sight of one another, and by signals they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By these means the court is informed in the speediest manner of whatever disturbance may happen in the most remote parts of the empire.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.... China is so happily situated, and produces such a variety of materials for manufacturers, that it may be said to be the native land of industry ; but it is an industry without taste or elegance, though carried on with great art and neatness. They make paper with the bark of bamboo and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable, for records or printing, to the European. Their ink for the use of drawing is well known in England, and is said to be made of oil and lampblack. The manufacture of that earthen-ware generally known by the name of China, was long a secret in Europe, and brought immense sums to that country. Though the Chinese affect to keep that manufacture still a secret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverised earth, and that several European countries far exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity.* The Chinese silks are ge-

* The English, in particular, have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commissions which have been received of late from

generally plain and flowered gauzes; and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing silk-worms was first discovered. They manufacture silks likewise of a more durable kind; and their cotton and other cloths are famous for furnishing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all European nations, with whom they deal for ready money: for such is the pride and avarice of the Chinese, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain that, since the discovery of the porcelain manufacture, and the vast improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chinese commerce has been on the decline.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT....The original plan of the Chinese government was patriarchal, almost in the strictest sense of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the most rigorous manner; but, at the same time, the emperor was considered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes; and the degrees of submission which were due from the inferior ranks to the superior were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision, and in a manner that to us seems highly ridiculous. This simple claim of obedience required great address and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chinese legislators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had peculiar modes of speaking and writing, and the people were taught to believe that the princes partook of divinity; so that they were seldom seen, and more seldom approached. "In the great palace of Peking (says sir George Staunton) all the mandarins resident in the capital assembled about noon, on his imperial majesty's birth day, and, dressed in their robes of ceremony, made the usual prostrations before the throne; incense of sandal and rose woods burning upon it at the same time, and offerings being made of viands and liquors, as if, though absent, he were capable of enjoying them." Mr. Barrow (a gentleman of the embassy) was present while the ceremonies were observed at Yuenminyuen; and he was informed that they likewise took place on that day in every part of the empire, the prostrators being every where attentive to turn their faces towards the capital. On all the days of new and full moon, similar incense is burnt, and offerings are made before the throne by the officers of the household in the several palaces of the emperor.

Though this system preserved the public tranquillity for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect, that often convulsed and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as the civil duties. The Chinese had passions like other men; and sometimes a weak or wicked administration drove them to arms, and a revolution easily succeeded, which they justified by saying that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During these commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours, the Tartars, to their assistance; who possessing great sagacity, became acquainted with the weak side of their con-

several princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture so generally useful will meet with encouragement from every true patriot among ourselves.

stitution, and availed themselves of it accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire, and conforming to the Chinese institutions.

Besides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chinese had sumptuary laws and regulations for the expences of all degrees of subjects, which were very useful in preserving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their institutions, likewise, the mandarins might remonstrate to the emperor, but in the most submissive manner, upon the error of his government; and, when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the most salutary effects. No country in the world is so well provided with magistrates for the discharge of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but they are often ineffectual, through want of public virtue in the execution.

REVENUES...The public revenues of China Proper (says Staunton) are said to be little less than two hundred millions of ounces of silver, which may be equal to about sixty-six millions of pounds sterling, or about four times those of Great Britain, and three times those of France before the late subversion. From the produce of the taxes, all civil and military expences, and the incidental and extraordinary charges, are first paid upon the spot, out of the treasuries of the respective provinces where such expences are incurred; and the remainder is remitted to the imperial treasury at Peking. This surplus amounted in the year 1792, according to an account taken from a statement furnished by Chow-ta-Zhin, to the sum of 36,614,328 ounces of silver, or 12,204,776*l*. A land tax was substituted in the last reign to the poll tax, as better proportioned to the faculties of individuals. Most imports, and all luxuries, are likewise taxed; but the duty, being added to the original price of the article, is seldom distinguished from it by the consumer. A transit duty is laid likewise on goods passing from one province to another. Each province in China, which may be compared to an European kingdom, is noted chiefly for the production of some particular article; the conveyance of which, to supply the demand for it in the others, raises this duty to a considerable sum, and forms the great internal commerce of the empire. Presents from the tributaries and subjects of the emperor, and the confiscations of opulent criminals, are not overlooked in enumerating the revenues of the public treasury. Taxes, such as upon rice, are received in kind. The several species of grain, on which many of the poorer classes of the people principally subsist, are exempted from taxation; so is wheat, to which rice is always preferred by the Chinese.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH....China is at this time a far more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the Eastern Tartars, in 1644. This is owing to the consummate policy of Chuntchi, the first Tartarian emperor of China; who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartars dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the seat of his government; and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition, which was so much in their favour.

According to the information given to the gentlemen of the English embassy by Van-ta-Zhin, who was himself a distinguished officer,

and appeared to give his account with candour, though not always, perhaps, with sufficient care and accuracy, the total of the army in the pay of China, including Tartars, amounted to one million infantry, and eight hundred thousand cavalry. From the observation made by the embassy, in the course of their travels, through the empire, of the garrisons in the cities of the several orders, and of the military posts at small distances from each other, there appeared nothing improbable in the calculation of the infantry; but they met few cavalry. If the number mentioned really do exist, a great proportion of them must be in Tartary, or on some service distant from the route of the embassy. As to the marine force, it is composed chiefly of the junks we have already mentioned; and other small ships that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent sudden descents.

A treatise on the military art, translated from the Chinese into the French language, was published at Paris in 1772, from which it appears that the Chinese are well versed in the theory of the art of war: but caution, and care, and circumspection, are much recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themselves.

ROYAL TITLE....The emperor is styled "Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People."

RELIGION....There is in China no state religion. None is paid, preferred, or encouraged, by it. The Chinese have no Sunday, nor even such a division as a week; the temples are, however, open every day for the visits of devotees. Persons of that description have, from time to time made grants, though to no great amount, for the maintenance of their clergy; but no lands are subject to ecclesiastical tithes. The emperor is of one faith; many of the mandarins of another; and the majority of the common people of a third, which is that of Fo. No people are, in fact, more superstitious than the common Chinese. Besides the habitual offices of devotion on the part of the priests and females, the temples are particularly frequented by the disciples of Fo, previously to any undertaking of importance; whether to marry, or go a journey, or conclude a bargain, or change situation, or any other material event in life, it is necessary first to consult the superintendant deity. This is performed by various methods. Some place a parcel of consecrated sticks, differently marked and numbered, which the consultant, kneeling before the altar, shakes in a hollow bamboo, until one of them falls on the ground; its mark is examined, and referred to a correspondent mark in a book which the priest holds open, and sometimes even it is written upon a piece of paper pasted upon the inside of the temple. Polygonal pieces of wood are by others thrown into the air. Each side has its particular mark: the side that is uppermost, when fallen on the floor, is in like manner referred to its correspondent mark in the book or sheet of fate. If the first throw be favourable, the person who made it prostrates himself in gratitude; and undertakes afterwards, with confidence, the business in agitation. But if the throw should be adverse, he tries a second time; and the third throw determines, at any rate, the question. In other respects, the people of the present time seem to pay little attention to their priests. The temples are, however, always open for such as choose to consult the decrees of heaven. They return thanks when the oracle proves propitious to their wishes. Yet they often cast lots to know the issue of a projected enterprise, then supplicate for its be-

ing favourable: and their worship consists more in thanksgiving than in prayer.

The temples of Fo abound with more images than are found in most Christian churches; some of which, as one of the missionaries has observed, exhibit so strong a likeness to those in churches of the Roman faith, that a Chinese conveyed into one of the latter, might imagine the votaries he saw were adoring the deities of his own country. On the altar of a Chinese temple, behind a screen, is frequently a representation which might answer for that of the virgin Mary, in the person of Shinmoo, or the sacred mother, sitting in an alcove with a child in her arms; and rays proceeding from a circle, which are called a glory, round her head, with tapers burning constantly before her. The resemblance of the worship of the Chinese to the forms of the catholic church, in some other particulars, has been, indeed, thought so striking, that some of the missionaries have conjectured that the Chinese had formerly received a glimpse of Christianity from the Nestorians, by the way of Tartary; others, that St. Thomas the apostle had been among them: but the missionary Premare could account for it no otherwise than by supposing it to have been a trick of the devil to mortify the Jesuits.

There are other images, however, in these temples, which bear a greater analogy to the ancient than to the present worship of the Romans. A figure representing a female, appears to be something similar to Lucina; and is particularly addressed by unmarried women wanting husbands, and married women wanting children. The doctrine of Fo, admitting of a subordinate deity particularly propitious to every wish which can be formed in the human mind, could scarcely fail to spread among those classes of the people who are not satisfied with their prospects as resulting from the natural causes of events. Its progress is not obstructed by any measures of the government of the country, which does not interfere with mere opinions. It prohibits no belief which is not supposed to affect the tranquillity of society.

The temples of Peking are not very sumptuous. The religion of the emperor is new in China, and its worship is performed with most magnificence in Tartary. The mandarins, the men of letters, from whom are selected the magistrates who govern the empire, and possess the upper ranks of life, venerate rather than adore Confucius, and meet to honour and celebrate his memory in halls of a simple but neat construction. The numerous and lower classes of the people are less able than inclined to contribute much towards the erection of large and costly edifices for public worship. Their religious attention is much engaged besides with their household gods. Every house has its altar and its deities. The books of their mythology contain representations of those who preside over their persons and properties, as well as over exterior objects likely to affect them. Few of the Chinese, however, carry the objects to be obtained by their devotion beyond the benefits of this life. Yet the religion of Fo professes the doctrine of the transmigration of souls, and promises happiness to the people on conditions which were, no doubt, originally intended to consist in the performance of moral duties; but, in lieu of which, are too frequently substituted those of contributions towards the erection or repair of temples, the maintenance of priests, and a strict attention to particular observances. The neglect of these is announced as punishable by the souls of the defaulters passing into

the bodies of the meanest animals, in which the sufferings are to be proportioned to the transgression committed in the human form.

According to Du Halde, the ancient Chinese adored a Supreme Being, under the name of Chang-Zi, or Tien; which, according to some, signified the spirit presiding over the heavens, but has been supposed by others to mean only the visible firmament. They also worshipped subaltern spirits, who presided over kingdoms, provinces, cities, rivers, and mountains. Since the fifteenth century, many of the Chinese literati have embraced a new system, which acknowledges a universal principle which they call Taiki. Their doctrine appears to have a resemblance to that of the soul of the world, as held by some ancient philosophers; and they have been denominated atheists. Such opinions are, however, confined to a comparatively small number of persons, the generality of the Chinese being addicted to the superstitions above described.

GENIUS, LEARNING, AND ARTS.... The genius of the Chinese is peculiar to themselves: they have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting; and yet, in their gardening and planning of their grounds, they exhibit the true sublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickness, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning and all its depending arts; they had no proper apparatus for astronomical observations; and the metaphysical learning which existed among them, was only known to their philosophers. But even the arts introduced by the Jesuits were of very short duration among them; and lasted very little longer than the reign of Hang-hi, who was contemporary with our Charles II, nor is it very probable they will ever be revived. It has been generally said, that they understood printing before the Europeans; but that can only be applied to their method of block-printing, by cutting their characters on blocks of wood; for the fusile or moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chinese, however, had almanacks which were stamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was discovered in Europe.

The difficulty of mastering and retaining such a number of arbitrary marks and characters as there are in what may be called the Chinese written language, greatly retards the progress of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with such honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and pursue it. The literati are revered as another species, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever so mean and low, they become mandarins of the highest rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly sink into poverty and obscurity, if they neglect those studies which raised their fathers. It has been observed, that there is no nation in the world where the first honours of the state lie so open to the lowest of the people, and where there is less of hereditary greatness. The Chinese range all their works of literature into four classes. The first is the class of King, or the sacred books, which contain the principles of the Chinese religion, morality, and government, and several curious and obscure records relative to these important subjects. History forms a separate class: yet, in this first class, there are placed some historical monuments, on account of their relation to religion and gov-

ernment; and, among others, the Tekunt ficou, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illustrious sage. The second class is that of the Su, or Che; that is, of history and the historians. The third class, called Tse, or Tse; comprehends philosophy and the philosophers: and contains all the works of the Chinese literati; the productions also of foreign sects and religions, which the Chinese consider only in the light of philosophical opinions; and all books relative to mathematics, astronomy, physic, military science, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth is called Tcie, or miscellanies; and contains all the poetical books of the Chinese, their pieces of eloquence, their songs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chinese literati, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themselves less to the study of nature, and to the researches of natural philosophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical science of life, and internal polity and manners. It is said that it was not before the dynasty of the Song, in the tenth and eleventh centuries after Christ, that the Chinese philosophers formed hypotheses concerning the system of the universe, and entered into discussions of a scholastic kind; in consequence, perhaps, of the intercourse they had long maintained with the Arabians, who studied with ardour the works of Aristotle. And since the Chinese have begun to pay some attention to natural philosophy, their progress in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder appears to be justly claimed by the Chinese, who made use of it against Zingis Khan and Tamerlane. They seem to have known nothing of small fire arms, and to have been acquainted only with cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their industry in their manufactures of stuffs, procelain, jappanning, and the like sedentary trades, is amazing; and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raising gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

LANGUAGE....The Chinese language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one syllable; but then each word is pronounced with such various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be easily imagined. The missionaries, who adapt the European characters as well as they can to the expression of Chinese words, have devised eleven different, and some of them very compounded, marks and aspirations, to signify the various modulations, elevations, and depressions of the voice, which distinguish the several meanings of the same monosyllable. The Chinese oral language, being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature; and therefore their learning is all comprised in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous, amounting to about eighty thousand. This language being wholly addressed to the eye, and having scarcely any oral affinity with the latter, has still continued in its original rude uncultivated state, while the former has received all possible improvement.

The Chinese characters, Mr. Astle observes, which are by length of time become symbolic, were originally imitative; they still retain so much of their original hieroglyphic nature, that they do not combine into words, like letters or marks for sounds, but we find one mark for a man, another for a horse, a third for a dog, and, in short, a separate and distinct mark for each thing which has a corporeal form. The Chinese use a great number of marks entirely of a symbolic nature,

to impress on the eye the conceptions of the mind which have no corporeal forms : though they do not combine these last marks into words, like marks for sounds or letters : but a separate mark is made to represent or stand for each idea ; and they use them as they do their abridged picture characters, which were originally imitative or hieroglyphic.

The Chinese books begin from the right hand ; their characters are placed in perpendicular columns, of which there are generally ten in a page. They are read downwards, beginning from the right hand side of the paper ; sometimes a title is placed horizontally, and this likewise reads from the right hand.

ANTIQUITIES.... The most remarkable of the remains of antiquity in the Chinese empire, the great wall separating China from Tartary, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, is supposed to extend from twelve hundred to fifteen hundred miles. It is carried over mountains and vallies ; and reaches from the province of Shensee to the Whang-Hay or Yellow Sea. It is in most places built of brick and mortar, which is so well tempered, that though it has stood more than two thousand years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Petchelee, to the east of Peking, and almost in the same latitude : it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraced and cased with bricks ; and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high ; it is flanked with towers at the distance of almost every hundred yards, which add to its strength, and render it much easier to be defended. One third of the men capable of labour in China were, it is said, employed in constructing this wall, which was begun and completely finished in the short space of five years ; and it is further reported, that the workmen stood so close for many miles, that they could hand the materials from one to another. P. Regis, and the other gentlemen who took a map of these provinces, often stretched a line on the top, to measure the bases of triangles, and to take distant points with an instrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or six horsemen to travel abreast with ease.

The other antiquities found in this country, are coins of the ancient monarchs, which are collected and arranged in cabinets by the curious among the natives ; several pagodas or ornamented towers, erected in commemoration of great events ; and numerous old temples, and triumphal arches.

HISTORY.... The Chinese pretend, as a nation, to an antiquity beyond all measure of credibility ; and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the scripture chronology assigns the creation of the world. Poan Kou is said by them to have been the first man ; and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of their celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Christ 479, has been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But, upon an accurate investigation of this subject, it appears, that all the Chinese historical relations of events prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057 years before Christ, are entirely fabulous, composed in modern times, unsupported by authentic records, and full of contradictions. It appears also, that the origin of the Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. Even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity ; but it is certain that the materials for the Chinese history are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in six hundred

and sixty-eight volumes; and consist of the pieces that have been composed by the tribunal or department of history, established in China for transmitting to posterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and transactions, of its sovereigns. It is said, that all the facts which concern the monarchy, since its foundation, have been deposited in this department; and from age to age have been arranged according to the order of time, under the inspection of government, and with all the precautions against illusion or partiality that could be suggested. These precautions have been carried so far, that the history of the reign of each imperial family has only been published after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound secret during the dynasty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is asserted, that many of the Chinese historians exposed themselves to exile, and even to death, rather than disguise the defects and vices of the sovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoang-ti, at whose command the great wall was built, in the year 213 before the Christian æra, ordered all the historical books and records which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppose his authority, and the changes he proposed to introduce into the monarchy. Four hundred literati were burnt, with their books: yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; several books were concealed, and escaped the general ruin. After this period, strict search was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but, though much industry was employed for this purpose, it appears that the authentic historical sources of the Chinese, for the times anterior to the year 200 before Christ, are very few, and that they are still in smaller numbers, for more remote periods. But notwithstanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chinese history, it is still immensely voluminous, and has been judged by some writers, superior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to six hundred and sixty-eight volumes, a copy is preserved in the library of the French nation. A chronological abridgment of this great work, in one hundred volumes, was published in the forty-second year of the reign of Kan-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called Kam-mo, or the abridgment. From these materials the abbé Grosier proposed to publish at Paris, in the French language, a General History of China, in twelve volumes quarto, some of which have been printed: and a smaller work, in twelve volumes octavo, by the late father de Maille, missionary at Peking, has been published.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon so copious a subject as that of the Chinese history; and which indeed would be very uninteresting to the generality of European readers. A succession of excellent princes, and a duration of domestic tranquillity, united legislation with philosophy, and produced their Fohi, whose history is enveloped in mysteries; their Li-Laokum; and, above all, their Kon-foo-tse, or Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all, the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, produced the most dreadful effects, in proportion as its constitution was pacific; and they were attended with the most bloody exterminations in some provinces: so that, though the Chinese empire is hereditary, the imperial succession has been more than once broken into, and altered. Upwards of

twenty dynasties, or different tribes and families of succession, are enumerated in their annals.

Neither the great Zingis Khan, nor Timur, though they often defeated the Chinese, could subdue their empire; and neither of them could keep the conquests they made there. Their celebrated wall proved but a feeble barrier against the arms of those famous Tartars. After their invasions were over, the Chinese went to war with the Manchew Tartars; while an indolent worthless emperor, Tsong-tching, was upon the throne. In the mean while, a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tse, in the province of Setchuen, dethroned the emperor who hanged himself, as did most of his courtiers and women. Ousanquey, the Chinese general, on the frontier of Tartary, refused to recognise the usurper; and made a peace with Tson-gate, or Chuntchi, the Manchew prince, who drove the usurper from the throne, and took possession of it himself, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himself in his authority; and, as has been already mentioned, wisely incorporated his hereditary subjects with the Chinese, so that in effect Tartary became an acquisition to China. He was succeeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities; who was the patron of the Jesuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government. About the year 1661, the Chinese, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the island of Formosa, which the latter had taken from the Portuguese.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars who composed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the settlements which they had under the Russian government on the banks of the Volga, and the Iaick, at a small distance from the Caspian Sea, and in a vast body of fifty thousand families, passed through the country of the Hasacks. After a march of eight months, in which they surmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontiers of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily; and offered themselves as subjects to Kien-Long, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-sixth year of his reign. He received them graciously; furnished them with provisions, clothes, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and pasturage. The year following, there was a second emigration of about thirty thousand other Tartar families; who also quitted the settlements which they enjoyed under the Russian government, and submitted to the Chinese sceptre. The emperor caused the history of these emigrations to be engraven upon stone in four different languages.

The hopes which were lately indulged of the great and manifold advantages to be derived from the embassy of lord Macartney to the court of Peking, ended in disappointment. Never, perhaps, was there a character better qualified for the management of an embassy of such delicacy and importance than lord Macartney: but, notwithstanding his lordship's adroitness, he found it utterly impossible to obtain permission for the residence of an Englishman at the capital of China, as ambassador, consul, or in any other character; or any exclusive settlement for the English within the Chinese dominions, even on a temporary grant, and solely for the purposes of trade. According to a fundamental principle in Chinese politics, innovation, of whatever kind, is held to be inevitably pregnant with ruin; and, on this principle, the emperor declined to admit a foreign resident at the court of Peking, or to expand the principles on which our com-

mercial intercourse with this country are at present regulated and confined.

The embassy arrived in the river Peho, in the gulf of Peking, the beginning of August 1793; and, on the 21st of the same month, reached the city of Peking. They remained here till the beginning of September; when they were conducted to Zhehol, or Jehol, one of the emperor's country residences in Tartary, distant about forty or fifty leagues from Peking. Here they had their audience of the emperor, who accepted the presents they had brought in the most gracious manner, and returned others of great value, of which two were so singular as to claim particular notice: the one was a poem addressed to his Britannic majesty, the composition of the emperor himself, and in his own hand-writing; it was lodged in a black wooden carved box, of no great value, but as an antique, to which character it has a just claim, having been two thousand years in the possession of the imperial family of China. The other present was a mass of costly agate, of unequalled size and beauty. It had always been the practice with the emperor to hold this agate in his hand, and to fix his eyes upon it, whenever he spoke to a mandarin or any of his ministers; as to look upon a subject is considered as not only derogatory to the imperial dignity, but to confer too much honour on the individual addressed.

Kien-Long, the late emperor of China, appeared, at the time he gave audience to the embassy, to be perfectly unreserved, cheerful, and unaffected; his eyes were full and clear, and his countenance open. He was clad in plain dark silk, with a velvet bonnet, in form not much different from the bonnet of Scotch Highlanders; on the front of it was placed a large pearl, which was the only jewel or ornament he appeared to have about him.

Kien-Long, or, as sir George Staunton writes his name, Chen-Lung, was only the fourth sovereign of the Tartar dynasty which took possession of the throne of that country about the year 1664. He ascended the throne of China in 1736, and died February 11, 1799. He was succeeded by Ka-Hing, the present emperor; who immediately on his accession to the throne degraded and imprisoned Ho-choong-taung, the prime minister of his predecessor. This minister was in power at the time of lord Macartney's embassy, and was supposed to be very hostile to the object of it: his disgrace has given hopes that such another attempt might now prove successful.

CHINESE TARTARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	3000	} between	{ 72 and 145 East longitude.	}	944,000
Breadth	1080				
			{ 35 and 53 North latitude.	}	

NAME...The origin of the name of Tartary is uncertain ;* but it has been conjectured to be derived from the Chinese, who call all their neighbours, without distinction, Tata or Ta-dse.

BOUNDARIES....Chinese Tartary is bounded on the north by Siberia, or Asiatic Russia; on the east by the sea of Japan, and the channel of Tartary; on the south by China Proper, and Tibet; and on the west by Independent Tartary.

The name of Tartary was formerly given vaguely to all the countries to the north of Persia, Hindoostan, and China, quite to the Northern Ocean; and from the Black Sea and the limits of European Russia to the Eastern Ocean.

DIVISION....The only division of this country in general, arises from the different tribes by which it is inhabited; of these the principal are the Manchews, or Mandshurs in the east; the Monguls, or Moguls, in the middle; and the Eluts, or Calmucs, in the west. The country of the Manchew Tartars, who are more immediately under the authority of China (having given to the latter country the present imperial family) has been divided by the Chinese into three great governments, Chinyang, Kirin, and Tsitchicar; which take their names from those of their chief towns. The Russians call the latter Daouria; from the tribe of Tajouri, who inhabit a great part of this district. To these may be added the province or peninsula of Corea, which has been for several centuries under the dominion of the Chinese. It is considerably populous; and the inhabitants are said to differ in several respects, particularly in their language, from the Manchew Tartars.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS....A great part of this extensive country is a vast elevated plain, supported like a table by the mountains of Tibet on the south, and the Altaian chain on the north. This prodigious plain, the most elevated level land on the face of the globe, is intersected by several chains of mountains; and by the vast deserts of Cobi and Shamo, which have been supposed to be the same, the former being the Tartarian, and the latter the Chinese name. To the west of this great country are the mountains of Belur Tag, or the Cloudy Mountains, the Imaus of the ancients, which separate the

* More properly written Tatar. But custom has so established this orthography, which, perhaps, was suggested by the pronunciation of the name, that it would appear affectation to alter it.

Chinese empire from Balk and Great Bucharia, and the Calmucs subject to China from the Kirguses of Independent Tartary.

LAKES.... There are several lakes in this country : among which are those of Balkash or Tengish, and Zaizan, each about one hundred and fifty miles in length ; as also Kokonor, or the Blue Lake, which has given its name to a tribe of Mogul Tartars.

RIVERS.... The principal of these is the Amur ; called by the Tartars Sagalian Oula, or River Sagalian, probably because it falls into the Eastern Ocean opposite the island Sagalian. It is also called, near its source, the Kerlon, and the Argoon ; it is a very large river ; the length of its course being above one thousand eight hundred miles. The other rivers are the Songari, the Nonni, the Yarkand, and the Ili, which latter falls into the lake of Balkash.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.... The great elevation of this country renders the climate much colder than in others under the same parallel : even in summer it freezes so hard as to produce ice of considerable thickness, which is caused as much by the north-east wind blowing continually over this vast plain, but little sheltered with trees, as by the prodigious quantities of saltpetre which impregnate the earth at the depth of four or five feet ; and it is not uncommon to dig up clods of frozen turf and heaps of icicles. The trees are neither numerous nor well grown, but there are some forests. Here are immense tracts of pasturage ; and the soil, were it cultivated, would no doubt be found sufficiently productive of most kinds of grain ; agriculture, however, is not entirely neglected by the Southern Manchews, who raise some wheat.

ANIMALS.... Among the various animals of this country, the most remarkable are the wild horses, and wild asses, which are very numerous here. The horses and cattle are in great plenty, and sold at low prices. The *bos grunniens* of Linnæus, or grunting ox, which inhabits Tartary and Tibet, has a tail of uncommon beauty, full and flowing, of a glossy and silky texture. These tails are a considerable article of exportation from Tibet : the Indians fasten small bundles of the hair to a handle, which they use for fly-flaps ; the Chinese dye tufts of it with a beautiful scarlet, to decorate their caps ; and the Turks employ it as ornaments to their standards, by some erroneously called horse-tails.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.... The Mogul Tartars are in their persons generally short and stout ; with broad faces, flat noses, small oblique eyes, thick lips, and a scanty beard, as they continually thin it by plucking out the hairs by the roots. Their ears are very large and prominent, their hair black, and their complexion of a reddish or yellowish brown ; but that of the women is fair, and of a healthy ruddiness ; they are extremely quick of sight and apprehension, are naturally easy and cheerful, and scarcely ever experience either care or melancholy. They are very hospitable to each other, and likewise to strangers who put themselves under their protection. Their dress consists of a flat yellow bonnet, the whole head being shaven except one lock of hair ; wide trowsers ; a vest of light stuff, with narrow sleeves ; and a girdle which supports the sabre, knife, and implements for smoking tobacco : the outer garment is of cloth, with wide sleeves, and linen is wound about the feet, over which are drawn buskins of leather, generally black or yellow ; shirts are unknown. The dress of the women is the same with that of the men, only that, instead of the outer garment, they wear a gown without sleeves. They have generally long hair, which they plait in tresses.

The various tribes of these Tartars in general form wandering hordes and live in tents, which they remove from one place to another, according as the temperature of the seasons, or the wants of their flocks require. When pasturage begins to fail, the whole tribes strike their tents, generally from ten to fifteen times in the year, proceeding in summer to the northern, and in winter to the southern wilds: the latter season they generally pass at the bottom of some mountain, or hill, which shelters them from the sharp and cutting north wind. Each of these tribes has its respective limits, and it would be an act of hostility towards their neighbours to go beyond them; but they are at full liberty to encamp wherever they choose, within the circumference assigned them. They live in their tents amid every kind of dirt and the dung of their flocks, which, when dried, they burn on their hearths instead of wood. They are naturally enemies of labour, and will not take the trouble of cultivating the earth; it even appears that they neglect agriculture from pride. When the missionaries asked them why they did not cultivate at least some gardens, they answered that "the grass was for beasts, and beasts for man." During the summer, they live only on milk, which they obtain from their flocks, using indiscriminately that of the cow, mare, ewe, goat, and camel. Their ordinary drink is warm water, in which a little coarse tea has been infused; with it they mix cream, milk, or butter, according to their circumstances: they have also a method of making a kind of spirituous liquor of sour milk, especially of that of the mare, which they distil after having allowed it to ferment. Tartars of better condition, before they distil this sour milk, mix with it some of the flesh of their sheep, which has been also left to ferment. This liquor is strong and nourishing, and one of their greatest pleasures is making themselves intoxicated with it.

The Moguls are extremely dexterous in handling the bow and arrow, managing their horses, and hunting wild beasts. Polygamy is permitted among them, but they generally have only one wife. They burn the bodies of their princes and chief priests, with many solemnities, and bury the ashes on eminences where the tombs are sometimes walled round, and ornamented with a great number of small standards.

The whole nation of the Moguls, under the Chinese government, may be divided into four principal tribes; the Moguls, properly so called, the Kalkas, the Ortous, and the Eluts, of which branch are the Tartars of Kokonor; all of whom have a great resemblance in their character and manners.

The Manchews are not very different in their habits and manners from the Moguls. They have, however, towns and villages, and appear to be much more civilized, especially since their conquest of China; though the Chinese retain a great antipathy against their conquerors, whom they despise as a filthy race of savages.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS....The capital of the whole country of the Manchew Tartars is Chinyang, or as it is called by the Tartars, Mugden. It stands on an eminence, and is said to be nearly three leagues in circumference. It contains a palace for the emperor, several public edifices, magazines of arms, and storehouses. Kirin, the chief town of the department of that name, is the residence of a Manchew general, who is invested with all the powers of a viceroy: he has the inspection of the troops, and authority over all the mandarins. Nin-

gouta, which is considered as the cradle of the present imperial family, is surrounded by a wooden wall, composed of plain stakes, driven into the earth, which touch each other, and are twenty feet high. Without this palisado there is another of the same kind, which is a league in circumference, and has four gates corresponding to the four cardinal points.

The Moguls, properly so called, as has been observed, have no towns; but in the country of Little Bucharía, possessed by the Eluts, or Kalmucs, who were subjected by the Chinese in 1759, is the city of Casgar, formerly the capital of a kingdom, nearly corresponding in its limits with Little Bucharía, and which still retains some trade; Yarkand, situate on a river of the same name; and Turfan the capital of a detached principality; once much frequented by merchants in their way from Persia to China.

TRADE.....The principal trade of the Manchews consists in ginseng, and pearls found in several rivers which fall into the Amur. This pearl fishery belongs to the emperor, but the greater part of the pearls are small, and not of a fine water: a kind much more beautiful are found in other rivers of Tartary, which flow into the Eastern Sea. The companies and merchants who engage in this fishery must every year give to the emperor, for permission to fish, 1140 pearls; this is the fixed tribute, and they must be pure and without blemish, or they are returned, and others required in their stead.

The sable skins of this country are highly valued, because they are reckoned to be very strong and durable. The most beautiful skins are set apart for the emperor, who buys a certain number of them at a stated price; the rest are sold at a high rate even in the country, where they are eagerly bought up by the mandarins and merchants.

The wandering tribes of Moguls know little of trade: they, however, exchange their cattle for cloth, silk, stuffs, and other apparel, and ornaments for themselves and their women.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS....The departments of the country of the Manchew Tartars are governed by viceroys appointed by the emperor of China. The wandering tribes of Moguls are governed by khans, or particular princes, who are independent of each other, but all subject to the authority of the Chinese emperor. When the Manchews subdued China, they conferred certain titles on the most powerful of the Mogul princes, and assigned them revenues, but far inferior to those of the Manchew lords at Peking. The emperor settled the limits of their respective territories, and gave them laws according to which they are at present governed. These tributary khans have not the power of condemning their subjects to death, nor of depriving them of their possessions: the cases of death and confiscation are reserved for the supreme tribunal established at Peking for the affairs of the Moguls, to which every individual may appeal from the sentence of his prince, who is obliged to appear in person whenever he is cited.

RELIGION....Many of the Tartar tribes profess the religion of the lamas, or that of Tibet, of which we shall give a farther account in the description of that country. They frequently make pilgrimages in great numbers, from the distance sometimes of a thousand miles, to Putola and Teeshoo Loomboo, to pay devout homage and bring offerings to the lama.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamanism. The professors of this religious sect believe in one

Supreme God, the creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his sight. But they also maintain that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the destiny of men, among a great number of subaltern divinities, under his command and control, but who, nevertheless, generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot dispense with using all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewise suppose, that, for the most part, these inferior deities abominate and punish premeditated villany, fraud and cruelty. They are all firmly persuaded of a future existence; but they have many superstitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are considered as being vastly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their sensual pleasure, to people the world, and to look after household affairs; and, in consequence of these principles, they are treated with much severity and contempt.

LANGUAGE....The language of the Manchews is said to be very copious, these Tartars being particularly nice with respect to the too frequent recurrence of the same sounds. It is said, likewise, to be very expressive, as it has names not only for the different species of dogs, but such as signify the age, colour, good or bad qualities, of a dog, whether he has long hair or short hair, large ears or hanging lips, in all which, and many other cases, he has a distinct and very different name. In like manner a horse has a variety of names, signifying in a single word, whether he be a restive horse, a run-away horse, a horse easily frightened, with what pace he goes, &c. This language is written in characters which represent sounds and not things like those of the Chinese. M. Langles, a member of the French Institute, has compiled a dictionary of the Manchew language, which he pronounces to be the most learned and perfect of the Tartar tongues, though not written till the seventeenth century, when the emperor appointed some literati to design letters after those of the Moguls. The language of the Moguls is said to be radically different from that of the Manchews.

HISTORY..The different tribes which at present inhabit this extensive region, were formerly comprehended under the general name of Monguls, or Moguls, a warlike and formidable nation, whose sovereign, Zingis, or Jenghis Khan, about the thirteenth century, conquered the greater part of the north of Asia, seized on China on the one hand, and invaded Hindoostan on the other. The Tartars held possession of China about a hundred years, but were expelled in 1368. The fugitives took different routes; some went towards the Eastern Sea, and established themselves between China and the river Sagalien: the rest returned to their former country, where, intermixing with the Moguls that remained, they soon resumed their ancient manner of living. Those who settled towards the east, having found the country almost a desert, and without inhabitants, retained the customs which they had brought from China, and became known by the name of Manchew or Eastern Tartars. In 1644 these Tartars re-entered China, and established a sovereign of their own race on the throne, as has been already mentioned in the history of China.

TIBET.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	1500	} between	{ 75 and 101 East longitude. 27 and 35 North latitude.	}	385,300
Breadth	500				

NAME....“ The country of Tibet,” says captain Turner, “ is called by the inhabitants Pue, or Puckoachim, which is derived, as they told me, from Pue, signifying northern, and Koachim, snow; that is, the snowy region of the north.”* The Chinese call it Asang. The origin of the name of Tibet (which in Bengal and the country itself is pronounced Tibbet or Tibt) does not appear.

BOUNDARIES....Tibet is bounded on the north and north-west by the great desert of Cobi in Tartary; on the east by China; on the south by Assam and Birmah; and on the south-west and west by Hindoostan.

DIVISIONS....This country is divided into Upper, Middle, and Lower Tibet. Upper Tibet is also called Nagari, and divided into the three provinces of Sangkar, Pourang, and Tamo. The provinces of Middle Tibet are Shang, Ou, and Kiang: those of Lower Tibet, Congbo, Kohang, and Takbo, or Bootan. The latter is an extensive country, usually considered as distinct from Tibet Proper. The countries to the west of Bootan and to the north of Hindoostan, a Morung, Mocampour, Nipaul, Gorka, and Kameoon, are not considered as parts of Tibet.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, FORESTS....Tibet at first view appears to the traveller as one of the least favoured countries under heaven, and seems to be in a great measure incapable of culture. It exhibits only low rocky hills without any visible vegetation, or extensive arid plains, both of the most stern and stubborn aspect, promising full as little as they produce. Bootan, however, or the most southern part, though it presents only the most misshapen irregularities, has its mountains covered with verdure, and rich with abundant forests of large and lofty trees.

The mountains in which the Ganges has its source, are called those of Kentaïsse; on the south are the mountains of Himmala.

LAKES....The most considerable lake with respect to dimensions, is that of Terkiri, which is about 80 miles in length and 25 broad; but the most remarkable is that of Jamdro or Palté which is represented as a wide trench of about two leagues broad; every where surrounding an island of about twelve leagues in diameter.

RIVERS....The principal river of Tibet is the Sanpoo, or Burrampooter, which has already been described as a river of Hindoostan. The Ganges likewise has its source among the mountains of Tibet, as has also the Chinese rivers Hoanho and Kianku, the great river

* Account of an Embassy to the Court of the Teeshoo Lama in Tibet, by Captain Samuel Turner, p. 305.

Mayhaung of Laos and Cambodia, and the Sadjoo or Gagra, which after a course of about 600 miles falls into the Ganges, near Chupra.

METALS, MINERALS.... Bootan is not known to contain any metal except iron, and a little copper; but in Tibet Proper gold is found in great quantities and very pure; sometimes in the form of gold dust in the beds of rivers, and sometimes in large masses and irregular veins. There is a lead mine about two days' journey from Teeshoo Loomboo, which probably contains silver. Cinnabar abounding in quick-silver, rock-salt, and tincal, or crude-borax, are likewise among the mineral productions of this country: the latter is found in inexhaustible quantities.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.... The climate of Tibet is cold and bleak in the extreme, from the severe effects of which the inhabitants are obliged to seek refuge in sheltered vallies and hollows, or amidst the warmest aspects of the rocks. In the temperature of the seasons, however, a remarkable uniformity prevails, as well as in their periodical duration and return. In Bootan almost every part of the mountains and hills which is coated with the smallest quantity of soil is cleared and adapted to cultivation; but in Tibet Proper, the nature of the soil prevents the progress of agriculture. Wheat, barley, and rice are grown in Bootan.

ANIMALS.... The variety and quantity of beasts of prey, flocks, droves, and herds of wild-fowl and game in Tibet, according to Mr. Turner, are astonishing: in Bootan, he tells us, he met with no wild animals, except monkeys. The horses, cattle, and sheep of Tibet are of a diminutive size, as are most of the beasts of prey. The grunting ox, called by the Tibetians the yak, has been already described. The musk deer is a native of this country. This animal is about the height of a moderately sized hog; he has in the upper jaw two long tusks directed downwards, which seem intended to serve him to dig roots, his usual food: the musk, which is only found in the male, is of a black colour, and formed in a little bag or tumor near the navel. These deer are deemed the property of the state, and hunted only by the permission of government. In Tibet there is also a beautiful species of goats, with straight horns, which have, next the skin, and under the exterior coarse coat, a very fine hair, from which the valuable shawls of India are manufactured.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.. To the north of Tassisudon, Mr. Sanders, who accompanied captain Turner on his embassy, observed a singular rock projecting over a considerable fall of water, and forming in front six or seven hundred angular semi-pillars of a great circumference and some hundred feet high. Among the mountains of Bootan is a water-fall called Minzapcezo, which issues in a collected body, but descends from so great a perpendicular height, that before it is received in the thick shade below, it is nearly dissipated, and appears like the steam arising from boiling water.

POPULATION.... We have not materials from which the population of this country can be ascertained with any degree of accuracy; but from the facility with which it has been conquered by the Eluts and other invaders, it appears evident that it is very thinly inhabited in comparison to its extent.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.... The people of Bootan and Tibet are much more robust and less swarthy than their southern neighbours of Bengal. Humanity, and an artificial gentleness of disposition, says Mr. Turner, are the constant inheritance of a Tibetan. Without

being servilely officious, they are always obliging ; the higher ranks are unassuming, the interior respectful in their behaviour ; nor are they at all deficient in attention to the female sex ; but as we find them moderate in all their passions, in this respect also, their conduct is equally remote from rudeness and adulation. A remarkable custom prevails in this country, directly contrary to the usual customs of the east, by which a woman is permitted to marry all the brothers of a family, without any restriction of age or numbers. The choice of the wife is the privilege of the elder brother. The ceremonies of marriage are neither tedious nor intricate. The elder brother of a family, to whom, as has been observed, the choice belongs, when enamoured of a damsel, makes his proposal to her parents. If his suit be approved, and the offer accepted, the parents with their daughter repair to the suitor's house, where the male and female acquaintance of both parties meet and carouse for the space of three days, with music, dancing, and every kind of festivity. At the expiration of this time the marriage is complete. The priests of Tibet, who shun the society of women, have no share in these ceremonies, or in ratifying the obligation between the parties. Mutual consent is their only bond of union, and the parties present are witnesses to the contract, which is formed indissolubly for life.

The Tibetians expose their dead bodies within walled areas, which are left open at the top, and have passages at the bottom to admit birds, dogs, and beasts of prey : no other funeral rites are performed but such as tend to facilitate the destruction of the body by the voracious animals, who are, as it were, invited to devour it. Some bodies are conveyed by the friends of the deceased to the summit of some neighbouring hill, where they are disjointed and mangled that they may become a more easy prey to carnivorous birds. The bodies of the sovereign lamas are, however, deposited in shrines prepared for their remains, which are ever after considered as sacred, and visited with religious awe ; those of the inferior priests are burnt, and their ashes preserved in little hollow images of metal. An annual festival is observed in Tibet, as in Bengal, in honour of the dead, which is celebrated by a general illumination of the houses and other buildings.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES...Lassa, or Lahassa, is considered as the capital of Tibet, and is situate in a spacious plain ; the houses are not numerous, but they are built of stone, and are large and lofty. The celebrated mountain of Putala, on which stands the palace of the Dalai Lama, or grand lama, the high priest and sovereign of Tibet, is about seven miles to the east of the city.

Teeshoo Loomboo, or Lubroug, the seat of Teeshoo Lama, and the capital of that part of Tibet immediately subject his authority, is, in fact, a large monastery, consisting of three or four hundred houses, inhabited by gylongs, a kind of monks or priests, besides temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the sovereign pontiff, with the residences of the various subordinate officers, both ecclesiastical and civil, belonging to the court. It is included within the hollow face of a high rock, and has a southern aspect. Its buildings are all of stone, none less than two stories high, flat roofed, and crowned with a parapet, rising considerably above the rest.

The castle or palace of Tassisudon in Bootan, stands near the centre of the valley of the same name. It is a stone building of a quadrangular form. The outer walls are lofty, being above thirty feet high, and enclose a central square building, which is the habitation

TIBET.

of the chief lama of the district, or Daeb Raja. There is no town near the palace, but a few clusters of houses are distributed in different parts among the fields.

"A Tibet village," says Mr. Turner, "by no means makes a handsome figure. The peasant's house is of a mean construction, and resembles a brick-kiln in shape and size more exactly than any thing to which I can compare it. It is built of rough stones, heaped upon each other without cement, and, on account of the strong winds that perpetually prevail here, it has never more than three or four small apertures to admit light. The roof is a flat terrace, surrounded with a parapet wall two or three feet high: on this are commonly placed piles of loose stones, intended to support a small flag, or the branch of a tree; or else as a fastening for a long line with scraps of paper, or white rag strung upon it, like the tail of a kite: this being stretched from one house to another, is a charm against evil genii, as infallible in its efficacy as horse-shoes nailed upon a threshold, or as straws thrown across the path of a reputed witch."

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE....The manufactures of Tibet are principally shawls and woollen cloths. The exports from Tibet, which go chiefly to China and Bengal, consist of gold dust, diamonds, pearls, coral, musk, rock-salt, tincal, woollen cloths, and lamb skins; in return for which are imported from China, silks, satins, gold and silver brocades, tea, tobacco, and furs of various kinds; and from Bengal the productions of that country, and a variety of English commodities and manufactures.

"A very small quantity of specie, and that of a base standard, is current in Tibet. It is the silver coin of Nipaul, here termed *inder-millee*; each is in value about one-third of a *sicca* rupee, and they are cut into halves, third parts, and quarters. This, which is the only money, serves to obtain the exigencies of life, but never enters into important contracts in the larger concerns of trade; in all such transactions, the equivalent is made in bullion, that is *tareema*, talents, or masses of gold and silver, which bear a value in proportion to the purity and specific gravity of the metal."*

GOVERNMENT, RELIGION....The government of this country is intimately connected with its religion, the civil authority, as well as the spiritual, being in the hands of the lamas, or sovereign pontiffs, of whom the chief, called the Dalai Lama, or Grand Lama, is not only submitted to and adored by the Tibetians, but is also the great object of veneration among the various tribes of Tartars who roam through the vast tract of continent which stretches from the banks of the Volga, to Corea, on the Sea of Japan. He is not only the sovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth; but, as superstition is ever the strongest where it is most removed from its object, the more remote Tartars absolutely regard him as the Deity himself. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worship and make rich offerings at his shrine; even the emperor of China, who is a Manchew Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgments to him in his religious capacity, though the lama is tributary to him, and actually entertains, at a great expence, in the palace of Peking, an inferior lama, deputed, as his nuncio, from Tibet. The opinion of those who are reputed the most orthodox among the Tibetians is, that when

the grand lama seems to die either of old age or infirmity, his soul in fact only quits a crazy habitation to look for another younger or better, and it is discovered again in the body of some child, by certain tokens, known only to the lamas or priests, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the grand lama was an infant, which had been discovered some time before by the Teeshoo lama, who, in authority and sanctity of character, is next to the grand lama, and, during his minority, acts as chief. In the year 1783, when Mr. Turner went on his embassy into Tibet, the Teeshoo lama was in a like manner an infant under the guardianship of a regent; and Mr. Turner, in his account of his embassy, has given a curious and interesting relation of a visit which he was permitted to make to him. "Teeshoo Lama," he tells us, "was at that time eighteen months old. He was placed, in great form, upon his musnud. On the left side stood his father and mother, and on the other the officer particularly appointed to wait upon his person. The musnud is a fabric of silk cushions, piled one upon the other, until the seat is elevated to the height of four feet from the floor; a piece of embroidered silk covered the top, and the sides also were decorated with pieces of silk of various colours, suspended from the upper edge and hanging down. Though the little creature," says our author, "was unable to speak a word, he made the most expressive signs, and conducted himself with astonishing dignity and decorum. His complexion was of that hue which in England we should term rather brown, but not without colour. His features were good, he had small black eyes, and an animated expression of countenance; altogether, I thought him one of the handsomest children I had ever seen."

The religious votaries of the lamas are divided into two sects, the gyllookpa and the shammar, at the head of each of which are three lamas. Over the gyllookpa sect preside Dalai Lama, whose residence is at Pootalah, near Lassa; Teeshoo Lama, who resides at Teeshoo Loomboo; and Taranaut Lama, who resides at Kharka, in Kilmank. This sect prevails over the greatest part of Tibet. The three lamas who in like manner preside over the shammar sect, have their residence in Bootan, in separate monasteries, but from the limited extent of that country, at no great distance from each other. These sects are distinguished by the colour of the dress of their priests. Those of the gyllookpa wear long robes of yellow cloth, with a conical cap of the same colour, having flaps to fall down and cover the ears. The dress of the other sect is red, and the tribes are known as belonging to the red, or the yellow cap. The former, it is said, differ principally from the others in admitting the marriage of their priests; but the latter are considered as the most orthodox, as well as possessed of far the greatest influence, since the emperor of China is decidedly a votary of this sect, and has sanctified his preference of the yellow colour by a sumptuary law which limits it to the service of religion, and the imperial use. These sects formerly engaged in violent religious wars, each destroying, when successful, the monasteries of the other, and establishing its own in their stead; but at present the power of the gyllookpa has attained the undisputed superiority, in which it appears to be firmly fixed in consequence of the emperor of China having declared in its favour, and adopted for himself the distinction of the yellow hat.

There are in this country numerous monasteries containing a great number of gylongs or monks, who are enjoined sobriety, to forego

the society of women, and confine themselves to the austere practices of the cloister. On the establishment of the monastery of Teeshoo Loomboo, were reckoned no less than three thousand seven hundred of these gylongs. There are also a number of nunneries, containing annees or nuns; and the strictest laws exist to prevent any woman from even accidentally passing a night within the limits of a monastery, or a man within those of a nunnery.

The religion of Tibet," says Mr. Turner, "seems to be the schismatical offspring of that of the Hindoos, deriving its origin from one of the followers of that faith, a disciple of Boodh, who first broached the doctrine which now prevails over the wide extent of Tartary. It is reported to have received its earliest admission into that part of Tibet bordering upon India (which from hence became the seat of the sovereign lamas) to have traversed over Manchew Tartary, and to have been ultimately disseminated over China and Japan. Though it differs from the Hindoo in many of its outward forms, yet it still bears a very close affinity to the religion of Brahma in many important particulars. The principle idol in the temples of Tibet is Mahamoonie (a name which in Sanscrit literally signifies great saint) the Budha or Boodh of Bengal, who is worshipped under these and various other epithets throughout the great extent of Tartary, and among all the nations to the eastward of the Burhampooter. In the wide extended space over which this faith prevails, the same object of veneration is acknowledged under numerous titles: among others he is styled Godama or Gowtama in Assam and Ava; Samana in Siam; Amida Buth in Japan; Fohi in China; Budha or Boodh in Bengal and Hindoostan; Dherma Raja and Mahamoonie in Bootan and Tibet, Durga and Kali; Ganeish, the emblem of wisdom; and Cartikeah with his numerous heads and arms, as well as many other deities of the Hindoo mythology, have also a place in their assemblage of gods.

"The same places of popular esteem or religious resort, as I have already hinted, are equally respected in Tibet and in Bengal. Praag, Cashi, Durgeedin, Sangor, and Jagarnaut, are objects of devout pilgrimage; and I have seen loads of the sacred water taken from the Ganges, travelling over those mountains (which, by the bye, contribute largely to its increase) upon the shoulders of men whom enthusiasts have deemed it worth their while to hire at a considerable expence for so pious a purpose.

"As far as I am able to judge respecting their ritual or ceremonial, it differs materially from the Hindoo. The Tibetians assemble in chapels, and unite together in prodigious numbers to perform the religious service, which they chant in alternate recitative and chorus, accompanied by an extensive band of loud and powerful instruments: so that whenever I heard these congregations, they forcibly recalled to my recollection both the solemnity and sound of a Roman-catholic mass."*

LANGUAGE....The language of Tibet is said to be radically different both from that of the Manchews and that of the Moguls. According to Mr. Turner, it consists almost entirely of nasal and guttural sounds. The alphabetic characters are of two kinds, the *uchem* and the *umin*; the former of which is the character in which the sacred writings are preserved, and considerably resembles the Sanscrit; the other is the

* Turner, p. 306, 307.

alphabet used for business and common correspondence. The vowels are indicated by marks or points, and the order of writing, contrary to the usual practice in the east, is from the left to the right. Printing with blocks of wood, in the manner of the Chinese, is said to have been known in Tibet from a very remote age.

HISTORY....The temporal government of Tibet has not been always in the possession of the lamas. According to the letters of father Andrada, who was in Tibet in the year 1624, that country was then governed by a secular sovereign, named Tsang-pa-han, who was a zealous protector of the Christian religion, and seemed greatly inclined to embrace it. The Tartar history of the same period corroborates this circumstance, for it relates that this prince despised the lamas, abandoned the law of the god Fo, and sought every opportunity to destroy it. The dalai lama being highly incensed at not receiving the homage of Tsang-pa-han, formed a league with the Tartars of Kokonor, who under their prince or khan, named Kouchi, entered Tibet at the head of a powerful army, attacked Tsang-pa-han, defeated him, and took him prisoner, and some time after caused him to be put to death. To this Tartar prince the dalai lama was indebted for his sovereignty over all Tibet; for, far from appropriating to himself the fruits of his victory, Kouchi declared himself a vassal of the supreme chief of his religion, and satisfied with receiving from him the title of khan, which he had never before enjoyed. This prince, to continue his protection to the dalai lama, and secure to him the undisturbed possession of his new acquisitions, fixed his residence, accompanied by his troops, in the neighbourhood of Lassa. His sons had no great inclination to return to a country which their father had abandoned, but followed his example and remained in Tibet.

In 1642, the dalai lama sent ambassadors to Tsongte, father to the first emperor of the present dynasty of the Manchew Tartars, threw himself under his protection, and paid him tribute. Ten years after, the dalai lama himself went to Peking, and did homage to the emperor. He was loaded with honours, received a golden seal and magnificent presents from the emperor, and was confirmed in his title of Dalai Lama.

In 1693, the emperor Kanghi, being desirous of honouring the *zyha*, or minister of the dalai lama, declared him a prince, and granted him a golden seal. This minister, however, was far from being faithful to the interests of the emperor; he, on the contrary, secretly betrayed them to the ambitious views of Kalden, the chief of the Eluts, who was the declared enemy of the Manchew Tartars. He even endeavoured to persuade the grand lama, not to go to Peking when called thither by the emperor, and when the dalai lama died he concealed his death. At length, however, all these intrigues were discovered in 1705, and Lats-khan, the chief of the Tartars of Kokonor, caused this perfidious minister to be put to death. Kanghi, informed of the crimes which he had committed, approved of the punishment inflicted on him, and sent some of the grandees of his court to Tibet to govern that country in conjunction with the Tartar prince, on whom he lavished many rich presents. He afterwards appointed a new dalai lama, who was the sixth who had borne that title.

In 1714, Tchongkar, the principal chief of the Eluts, made an irruption into Tibet, and carried away a great quantity of rich plunder in gold, silver, precious stones, silks, and other valuable things. The

Tartar prince, who endeavoured to resist the invaders, was killed in battle, many of the lamas were put to the sword, and the monastery at Pootala was reduced to ashes. The dalai lama made application to the court of China for succours, and the emperor immediately sent a powerful army to his assistance, which drove the Eluts out of the country, re-established the dalai lama in his authority, and restored to the other lamas possession of their pagodas or monasteries.

Since 1759, when the Eluts were finally subjugated by the late emperor of China, Kien Long, the Tibetians have had nothing to fear from the incursions of those Tartars. But in 1792, the mountaineers of Nipaul invaded and ravaged the country, plundering the monasteries of their treasures, and robbing the mausolea of the lamas. The emperor of China, however, as soon as he had received information of this attack, sent an army to protect and avenge the lama. The Nipulese were defeated, and could only obtain peace on condition of becoming tributary to China, and making a full restitution of all the plunder they had carried off. The Chinese at the same time established military posts on the frontiers of Tibet, which prevent all communication between that country and Bengal, as the Chinese guard them with their accustomed jealousy and caution, and the approach of strangers, even of the natives of Bengal and Hindoostan, is utterly prohibited.*

* Turner, p. 442.

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1500	} between	{ 31 and 52 North latitude. }	500,000
Breadth 850		{ 55 and 70 East longitude. }	

BOUNDARIES....These are, on the east, the mountains of Belur, which separate this part of Tartary from Little Bucharia, now subjected by the Chinese; on the south, the mountains of Gaur, which divide it from Persia; and the provinces of Candahar and Cabul, in Hindoostan; on the west, the Caspian sea, the river Ural or Yaik, and the Uralian mountains; and on the north, the Russian dominions in Asia.

DIVISIONS....Independent Tartary consists of extensive tracts inhabited by the Kirguses or Kirguisian Tartars; the country of Kharrism, and Great Bucharia, inhabited by the Usbec Tartars. Great Bucharia is divided into the provinces of Fergana, Sogd, Vash, Kottan, Balk, Gaur, and Kilan.

MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS....The principal mountains of this country are the Belur Tag, the ancient Imaus, and the mountains of Argjun and of Gaur. The most considerable lakes are that of Aral, about 200 miles in length and 70 in breadth; and that of Balcash, 140 miles long and 70 broad. The chief rivers are the Amu or Gihoon, the ancient Oxus; and the Sir or Sihoon, the ancient Iaxartes. The former rises in the mountains of Belur, and falls into the lake of Aral, after a course of about 900 miles; the latter rises among the same mountains, and falls into the same lake, after a course of about 550 miles.

METALS, MINERALS....Several parts of this country contain gold, silver, iron, copper, vitriol and sal ammoniac. Rich quarries of lapis lazuli abound in Great Bucharia, and several kinds of valuable stones, particularly rubies, are found here; but the natives have neither skill nor industry to derive much advantage from the mineral riches of this country.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE....The climate appears to be extremely temperate and salubrious; and the soil, in the southern parts at least, very productive, the grass, it is said, sometimes growing there to above the height of a man. Rice and other kinds of grain, as also exquisite melons, pears, and apples, are among the productions of Great Bucharia.

ANIMALS....The animals here are nearly the same as in Tibet, the north of Persia, and other surrounding countries. The grunting ox, chamois goats, and wild asses, are found among the mountains on the south and north.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS....The Kirguses or Kirguisian Tartars, who inhabit the northern part of this country, live in tents, and lead a wandering life. They consist of three hordes, called the great, lesser, and middle horde, each of which has its particular khan. They dwell always in portable huts, which they remove from time to time to different places in search of pasturage for their flocks and herds, which constitutes their principal occupation. They have horses, camels, cattle, sheep and goats; and it is asserted that some individuals in the middle horde have 10,000 horses, 300 camels, 3 or 4000 cattle, 20,000 sheep, and more than 2000 goats. They have flat noses, small eyes, a sharp but not a fierce look, and a frank and prepossessing air. The decoration of their horses employs them almost as much as that of their persons, they having generally elegant saddles, handsome housings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters, and they also smoke tobacco to excess. Men, women, and children all smoke and take snuff, the latter of which they keep in little horns fastened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the same manner as the rest of the people, and are distinguished only by the numerous train that accompanies them in their cavalcades, and the number of huts which surround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children, and slaves.

The Usbec Tartars, who inhabit the southern parts of this country, resemble in their persons, manners, and customs, the other Tartarian tribes, except that they are in general more spirited and industrious. They are addicted to predatory warfare, and frequently make sudden incursions into the Persian provinces; on which occasions, it is said, the women likewise bear arms, and accompany their husbands to the field. Many of these Tartars reside in tents in the summer, but take up their abode in the towns and villages in winter. Those of Balk are the most civilized, and carry on a considerable trade with Persia and Hindoostan. The native Bucharians are of a fairer complexion than the Usbecs, and of a more peaceable disposition, as it is said they never bear arms.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS....Samarcand, situate on the southern bank of the river Sogd, was anciently the seat of empire of the celebrated Timur or Tamerlane. It is fortified with strong bulwarks of earth; the houses are principally of hardened clay, though some are built with stone procured from quarries in the vicinity. There is a citadel or castle which is now almost in ruins. Bokhara, situate likewise on the Sogd, in the middle of the last century was a large and flourishing city, with a wall of earth and several mosques built with brick. Balk, on the river Dehash, is also large and populous, with houses of brick and stone, and a palace or castle built almost entirely of marble brought from the neighbouring mountains. Badakshan, on the river Amu, is a small town, but well built, and containing a considerable number of inhabitants.

TRADE....The Kirguisians trade with the Russians; their traffic is entirely carried on by barter, and they exchange their horses, cattle, and sheep for manufactures, principally clothing and furniture. Arms of every kind are refused them by the Russians, and they procure

them, by the same kind of barter, from Great Bucharia, and the southern parts of the country.

The Tartars of Great Bucharia are a very commercial people : their caravans travel through a great part of Asia, and traffic with Persia, Tibet, China, and Russia. Their principal marts in the latter country are Tomask and Orenburg.

GOVERNMENT....The Kirguses and Usbecs are subject to princes called khans, whose power is despotic over their several hordes and tribes. In Great Bucharia, the khan of Tamarcand in the north, and the khan of Balk in the south, are, it is probable, the principal sovereigns of the country.

RELIGION....The religion of almost all the Tartars of these countries is the Mahometan, according to the tenets of the sect of the Sunnis.

LEARNING....The reader may be surprised to find this article in an account of the Tartars ; yet nothing is more certain, than that under Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early descendants, Astracan and the neighbouring countries were the seats of learning and politeness as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever so splendid, falls short of those princes ; and some remains of their taste in architecture are still extant, but in spots so desolate, that they are almost inaccessible. The encouragement of learning was the first care of the prince, and it was generally cultivated by his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Persian and Arabic tongues. The name of Ulug Beig, the grandson of the great Timur, is well known to astronomers ; and Abulgazi, the khan of Karism, wrote the history of his country. Samarcand was a celebrated university for eastern science ; and even in the last century was still a flourishing school for Mahometan literature.

ANTIQUITIES....These consist of the ruins of edifices erected by Zingis Khan, Timur, and their successors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, which heretofore either surrounded small towns, now quite demolished, or were designed for the defence of camps, forts, or castles, the vestiges of which are often to be discovered. Many of them are still in tolerable preservation. In the uncultivated tracts, occupied by the Kirguisians, are many relics of opulent cities. Some gold and silver coins have likewise been found, with several manuscripts neatly written, which have been carried to Petersburg. In 1720, there was found in Calmuc Tartary a subterraneous house of stone, some urns, lamps, and ear-rings ; an equestrian statue ; an image of an oriental prince with a diadem on his head ; two women seated on thrones ; and a roll of manuscripts, which was sent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Tibet.

HISTORY....The country of Usbec Tartary was once the seat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite residence of Zingis or Jenghis Khan, and Timur or Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of India and the eastern world.

The former, about the year 1200, made himself master of those regions which form at this day the Asiatic part of the Russian empire ; and his son, Batou Sagin, conquered Southern Russia, and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or blended with the Russians. It was not until the time of Ivan III, who ascended the Rus-

sian throne in 1462, that the Russians were able to throw off the galling yoke of the Tartars. Ivan repeatedly defeated them, subdued the kingdom of Kasan, and other provinces, and made his name respected through all the neighbouring countries.

The fame of Tamerlane has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan : his defeat of the Turkish emperor Bajazet has been noticed in the history of that nation. The honour of being descended from him is claimed not only by all the khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Hindoostan himself.

When the vast dominions of Zingis Kahn fell to pieces, under his successors in the sixteenth century, the Mogul and Tartar hordes who had formed one empire, again separated, and have since continued distinct.

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 5300	} between	37 and 190 East longitude.	3,650,000
Breadth 1800		50 and 78 North latitude.	

BOUNDARIES....The Russian dominions in Asia are bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the east by the seas of Kamtschatka and Ochotsk, or the Eastern Ocean; on the south by Chinese and Independent Tartary, Persia, and Turkey; and on the west by Russia in Europe.

DIVISIONS....The governments of the Russian empire in general have already been enumerated: those of which a part or the whole are in Asia, are Caucasia, Saratof, Simbirsk, Orenburg, Ufa, Kazan, Perm, Tobolsk, Kolhyvan, Irkutsk: to which is to be added the peninsula of Kamtschatka.

The three great governments of Tobolsk, Kolhyvan, and Irkutsk, are called by the general name of Siberia, from an ancient city named Sibir, which is said to have stood on the banks of the Irtysh, near the present city of Tobolsk, and to have been the residence of the old sovereigns of this part of Asia. The government of Tobolsk is divided into the two provinces of Tobolsk and Tomsk; and that of Irkutsk into the four provinces of Irkutsk, Nerzhinsk, Yakutsk, and Okotsk.

MOUNTAINS....The mountains of Asiatic Russia are the Uralian chain, which divides it from Russian Europe; the mountains of Caucasus; those of Altai, called by the Chinese the Golden Ridge; and those of Nerzhinsk, or Russian Daouria.

RIVERS....The chief rivers of this country are the Ob or Oby, the largest in the Russian empire, the length of its course being 1900 miles; and the Yenissei, which has a course of about 1750. The former falls into the sea of Ob, a gulf of the Frozen Ocean; in which ocean the Yenissei likewise terminates. The other principal rivers are the Irtysh, which falls into the Ob; the Lena; the Angara, which falls into the Yenissei; the Argun or Argoon, the boundary of the Russian and the Chinese territory; the Selenga; and the Yaik or Ural.

In the southern part of Siberia, near the confines of Chinese Tartary, is the lake or sea of Baikal, 350 miles long and about 50 broad. There are also other lakes of less note.

METALS, MINERALS....Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, jasper, and lapis lazuli. Asiatic Russia also produces sulphur, alum sal ammoniac, vitriol, nitre, and natron, in abundance.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE....The government of Caucasia, and in general the southern parts of this extensive region, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than industry. The parts that are cul-

tivated produce excellent fruits of almost all the kinds known in Europe, especially grapes, which are reckoned the largest and finest in the world. The summers are very dry, and from the end of July to the beginning of October the air is pestered, and the soil sometimes ruined by incredible quantities of locusts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Russian ambassador to China, represents some parts of Tartary as desirable and fertile countries, the grass growing spontaneously to an amazing height. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air is pure and wholesome; and Mr. Tooke observes, that its inhabitants, in all probability, would live to an extreme old age, if they were not so much addicted to an immoderate use of intoxicating liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almost to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radishes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well; but scarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit trees to bear have hitherto been in vain; but there is reason to believe that industry and patience may at length overcome the rudeness of the climate. Currants and strawberries of several sorts are said to grow here in as great perfection as in the English gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various edible roots, are found very generally here: but there are no bees in all Siberia.

ANIMALS.... These are camels, dromedaries, rein deers, bears, bison, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the northern parts of Europe. Their horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy: as they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally head-strong. Near Astracan, there is a bird, called by the Russians baba, of a gray colour, and something larger than a swan: he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart, or more: he wades near the edge of a river and on seeing a shoal or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings and drives them to a shallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going ashore, eats them, or carries them to his young. This bird is probably a species of the pelican.

The forests of Siberia are well stocked with a variety of animals, some of which are not to be found in other countries. These supply the inhabitants with food and clothes; and, at the same time, furnish them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be considered as the native country of black foxes, sables, and ermines, the skins of which are here superior to those of any part of the world. Horses and cattle are in great plenty.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.... Among these may be enumerated the extensive desert levels called stepps, which extend several hundred miles with no appearance of a mountain and scarcely of a hill. They contain in many places salt lakes, and in others, productive tracts, capable of cultivation. The peninsula of Kamtschatka abounds in volcanoes, of which however only three have, for several years past, produced eruptions. The same country is likewise said to contain numerous springs of hot water.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.... The population of Asiatic Russia, notwithstanding its vast extent is not estimated at more than three millions and a half, or four millions.

The inhabitants of this part of the Russian empire are composed of many different nations, principally Tartar tribes, some of whom now live in fixed houses and villages, and pay tribute like other subjects.

Till lately they were not admitted into the Russian armies, but now they make excellent soldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their ancient habits, and live a wandering life. Both sides of the Volga are inhabited by Tchermisses and Morduars, a peaceable industrious people. The Bashkirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reached from Kazan to the frontiers of Siberia, and have certain privileges of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kalmucs occupy the rest of the tract of Astracan and the frontiers of the Usbeks: and in consideration of certain presents which they receive from the sovereigns of Russia, they serve in their armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The character of the Tartars of Kazan may serve for that of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally straight and well made, have small faces, with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of very moderate capacity. They are sober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarian women are of a wholesome complexion rather than handsome, and of a good constitution: from their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, modesty, and submission. The Tartars of Kazan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to sobriety, and to a strict observance of the manners of their ancestors. They are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the smallest village has its chapel, school, priest, and schoolmaster; though some of the priests and schoolmasters are not much skilled in the Arabic language. The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kazan, Tobolsk, and Astracan, which are under the direction of the gagouns, or high priests. It is not uncommon to find small collections of historical anecdotes in manuscript in the huts of the boors: and their merchants, besides what those little libraries contain, are pretty extensively acquainted with the history of their own people, and that of the circumjacent states, and with the antiquities of each. Such as choose to make a progress in theology, enter themselves into the schools of Bucharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kazan, Orenburg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely seen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterprising; but as they extend their connexions by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of business, which their parsimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kazan they make a trade of preparing what is called in England Morocco-leather. The villages of these people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Most of them also contain tanners, shoemakers, tailors, dyers, smiths, and carpenters.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villagers of Astracan are perfectly similar with those of the Tartars of Kazan. In the city of Astracan they have a large magazine for goods, built of bricks, and several shops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Persians, Indians, Bucharians: and their manufactories of Morocco-leather, cotton, camelots, and silks, are in a very thriving state.

The Tchowashes dwell along the two sides of the Volga, in the governments of Kazan and Orenburg. They never live in towns, but assemble in small villages of huts, and choose the forests for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpose screw-barrel muskets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage-ceremonies is, that on the wedding night the bride is obliged to pull off her husband's boots. The husband exercises a lordly authority over the wife, and she is obliged to obey all his commands without reply.

The Votiaks, who are a Finnish race, chiefly inhabit the government of Kazan. Some of the Votiaks are Christians, but great part of them are heathens and idolaters, though even these believe the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

The Ostiaks, who are likewise a Finnish race, are one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in subjection to Russia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their descendants are still reputed noble. These people divide themselves into different stocks or tribes, and they choose their chiefs from the progeny of their ancient rulers. These maintain peace and good order, and superintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the use of letters, and are extremely ignorant. It is even said that they cannot reckon farther than ten.

The Vogels are rather below the middle stature. Their principal occupation is the chase, in which they discover much eagerness and address; using indiscriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the spear. They are also skilful in contriving traps, snares, and gins, for various kinds of game.

The Kalmucs are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the most part raw-boned and stout. Their visage is so flat, that the skull of a Kalmuc may be easily known from others. They have thick lips, a small nose, and a short chin, the complexion a reddish and yellowish brown. Their clothing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chinese. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their nostrils. Their principal food is animals, tame and wild: and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of distemper or age, and though the flesh be putrid; so that in every horde the flesh-market has the appearance of a lay-stall of carrion: they eat likewise the roots and plants of their deserts. They are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both sexes smoke continually: during the summer they remain in the northern, and in the winter in the southern deserts. They sleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themselves with the same.

The Tungusians, who are of the race of the Manchews, form one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. They are of a middle stature, well made, and of a good mien. Their sight and hearing are of a degree of acuteness and delicacy that is almost incredible; but their organs of smelling and feeling are considerably more blunt than ours. They are acquainted with almost every tree and stone within the circuit of their usual perambulation: and they can even describe a course of some hundred miles by the configuration of the trees and stones they meet with, and can enable others to make the same route by such descriptions. They also discover the tracks of the game by the compression of the grass or moss. They learn foreign languages

with ease, are alert on horseback, good hunters, and dexterous at the bow.

The Kamtschadales have a lively imagination, a strong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fishing. The chase furnishes them with sables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fishing, and are well acquainted with the proper seasons for it. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domestic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in small carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtschadalian equipage, dogs, harness, and all, costs in that country near twenty rubles, or 4*l.* 10*s.* The Kamtschadales believed the immortality of the soul, before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Christian religion. They are superstitious to extravagance, and extremely singular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the Siberians were formerly so barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater punishment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by banishing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swedish officers and soldiers introduced European usages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. Kamtschatka is now considered as the most horrid place of exile in the vast empire of Russia; and hither some of the greatest criminals are sent.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS....Astracan, situate on an island formed by the river Volga, near its entrance into the Caspian sea, is a large and populous city, containing about 70,000 inhabitants. It is about a league in circumference, and surrounded by a wall. It contains twenty-five Russian churches and two convents, and is the seat of a Greek bishop. The Armenians, Lutherans, and Roman-catholics, have also their places of worship, and even the Hindoos a temple.

Orenburg, the capital of the government of Ufa, was built in 1738, by order of the empress Anne, at the conflux of the Or and Ural: but that situation being found inconvenient, the inhabitants were removed, and the town built lower down on the Ural, in 1740. It is now a place of considerable trade.

Tobolsk, the chief town of the government of the same name, and considered as the capital of all Siberia, is situate at the confluence of the Irtysh and the Tobol. It consists of two towns, called the upper and the lower town, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants. It has a tolerably strong fortress. To this city are sent the Russian state-prisoners who are banished into Siberia.

Irkutsk, the capital of the government of that name, situate on the Angara, near the late Baikal, contains several churches and other edifices of stone, and about 12,000 inhabitants. It is a place of considerable commerce, the caravans which trade between Russia and China passing through it.

Tomsk, the chief town of the province of that name, in the government of Tobolsk, is a place of considerable trade, and contains about 2000 houses and 8000 inhabitants. Yakutsk, which gives name to a province in the government of Irkutsk, stands on the river Lena; it contains about five or six hundred wooden houses, and is defended by a wooden fort. Ochotsk, which gives name to another province of the same government, is a small town or rather station, situate at the

mouth of the river Ochota, on a gulph of the Eastern Ocean, called the sea of Ochotsk.

Bolchetskoïostrog, which has the title of capital of Kamtschatka, and is the residence of the governor, contains about 500 houses pretty regularly built.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.... There are manufactures of leather and isinglass at Astracan; and a considerable trade is carried on there in salt, produced in great quantities from the salt lakes and marshes in the vicinity of the Caspian sea: as also in fish procured from the same sea. The principal trade of Siberia is in sables and other furs, which are purchased with avidity by the Chinese, who in return bring tea, silk, and other commodities. The trade of the Kirguses and Bucharians with Orenburg and Omsk has been mentioned in the account of Independent Tartary.

RELIGION.... Some of the Tartars since the Russians have been settled in their country have become converts to Christianity; but the greater part of them still remain attached to their old superstitions.

Tobolsk is a Greek archbishopric; Irkutsk and Nerzhinsk are bishop's sees.

ANTIQUITIES.... In the environs of Astracan the ruins of ancient Astracan are very visible: and the rubbish and ramparts of another respectable town still exist near Tzaritzin, on the left shore of the Volga. A little below the mouth of the Kama, which empties itself into the above mentioned river, are many superb monuments of the ancient city Bulgari, consisting of towers, mosques, houses, and sepulchres, all built of stone or brick. The oldest epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries, and the most modern at least four hundred years. Not far from hence, on the Tscheremtscham, a little river that runs into the Volga, are found ruins somewhat more injured by the depredations of time: they are those of Boulmer, an ancient and very considerable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the small town of Bilyairsk. In the fortress of Cazan is a monument of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are so broad, that they serve at present for ramparts; the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn stone. Ascending the river Kazanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the strong ramparts of the old city of Kazan. Near the Ufa are cemeteries full of innumerable inscriptions, and several sepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are still seen near Tobolsk, upon the Irtysh. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulph in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Ural are the ditches of the city Saratschik.

In many parts of Siberia, particularly near the river Jenissei, are stone tombs with rude sculptures of human faces, camels, horsemen with lances, &c. In these tombs are found human bones, as also the bones of horses and oxen, fragments of earthen-ware, and various ornaments and trinkets.

HISTORY.... The Russians, though they had made some incursions into the interior parts of Asia as early as the middle of the fifteenth century, under the reign of John Basilides, or Ivan Vassilievitch, had no fixed establishments there till nearly the middle of the sixteenth; when Trogonoff or Strogonoff, a Russian merchant of Archangel, having found means to open a trade for furs with Siberia, the czar then

on the throne, Ivan Vassilievitch II, to whom he disclosed the nature of his connexions, promised him protection, and in 1558, assumed the title of lord of Sibir or Siberia. Soon after, Yermac, a chief of the Don Cossacs, being compelled by the progress of the Russian conquests to submit, or seek some distant place of refuge, retired with a number of his followers into Siberia, where, having defeated the Tartar khan of Sibir, he seized his capital, and made it his residence; but finding himself too weak to preserve his conquests, he applied to Russia for succours and protection, and sent a deputation to do homage to the czar as his sovereign. In the course of two or three years after, almost all the Cossacs were killed in repeated battles, and Yermac himself was drowned in attempting to leap into a boat. The Russians, however, after many conflicts, secured to themselves the possession of this extensive country; and by the middle of the seventeenth century had advanced to the river Amur, where they built some forts, which occasioned hostilities between them and the Chinese, who destroyed the Russian forts. These disputes were terminated by the treaty of Nerzhinsk, concluded in 1689, by which the Argoon was made the boundary of the Russian and Chinese territories. The limits of the former were somewhat enlarged in 1727. Kamtschatka was reduced under the power of the Russians about the year 1711.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO RUSSIA, IN ASIA.

THE sea which separates the southern point of the peninsula of Kamtschatka from Japan, contains a number of islands in a position from north-north-east, to south-south-west, which are called the KURILE ISLANDS. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in several of them are volcanoes and hot springs. The principal of those islands are inhabited: but some of the little ones are entirely desert and unpeopled. They differ much from each other, in respect both to their situation and natural constitution. The forests in the more northern ones are composed of larch and pines; those in the southern produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In some of them are bears and foxes. The sea-otter appears on the coasts of all these islands, as well as whales, sea-horses, seals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of these islands have a great likeness to the Japanese, in their manners, language, and personal appearance; others very much resemble the Kamtschadales. The northern islands acknowledge the sovereignty of the empire of Russia; but those of the south pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians discover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hospitable; but adversity renders them timid, and prompts them to suicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an especial affection for those of their respective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they speak and pronounce it slowly. The men are employed in hunting, fishing for sea animals and whales, and catching fowl. Their canoes are made of the wood that their forests produce, or that the sea casts upon their shores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern isles they sew, and make different clothes of the thread of nettles. The southern islanders are more refined and polished than the northern, and carry on a sort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles' feathers to fledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japanese utensils of metal and varnished wood, skillers, sabres, different stuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all sorts of trinkets, and small wares.

Between the eastern coast of Kamtschatka, and the western coast of America, are several groups of islands, divided by Mr. Muller, into four principal groups; the first two of which are called the ALEUTIAN ISLANDS.* The first group, which is called by some of the islanders

* Mr. Coxe observes, that "the first project for making discoveries in that tempestuous sea which lies between Kamtschatka and America was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expence of the crown; but, when it was discovered that the islands of that sea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in similar expeditions; and within a period of ten years, more important discoveries were made by those individuals, at their own private cost, than had hitherto been

Sasignam, comprehends, 1, Beering's Island ; 2, Copper Island ; 3, Otma ; 4, Samyra, or Shemyia ; 5, Anakta. The second group is called Khao, and comprises eight islands, viz. 1, Immak ; 2, Kiska ; 3, Tchetchia ; 4, Ava ; 5, Kavia ; 6, Tschangulek ; 7, Ulagama ; 8, Amtschidga. The third general name is Negho, and comprehends the islands known to the Russians under the name of Andreanoffski Ostrova ; sixteen of which are mentioned under the following names : 1, Amatkanak ; 2, Ulak ; 3, Unalga ; 4, Navotsha ; 5, Uliga ; 6, Anagin ; 7, Kagulak ; 8, Illask, or Illak ; 9, Takavanga, upon which is a volcano ; 10, Kanaga, which has also a volcano ; 11, Leg ; 12, Skets-huna ; 13, Tagaloon ; 14, Gorleoi ; 15, Otche ; 16, Amla. The fourth group is called Kavalang, and comprehends sixteen islands ; which are called by the Russians Lyssic Ostrova, or the Fox Islands ; and which are named, 1, Amuchta ; 2, Tschigama ; 3, Tschegula ; 4, Unistra ; 5, Ulaga ; 6, Tauagulana ; 7, Kagamin ; 8, Kagalga ; 9, Shelmaga ; 10, Umnak ; 11, Agun-Alashska ; 12, Unimma, 13, Uligan ; 14, Anturo Leissume ; 15, Semidit ; 16, Senagak.

Some of these islands are only inhabited occasionally, and for some months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled ; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who constantly reside in them. Copper Island receives its name from the copper which the sea throws upon its coasts. The inhabitants of these islands are in general of a short stature, with strong robust limbs, but free and supple. They have lank black hair and little beard, flattish faces, and fair skins. They are for the most part well made, and of strong constitutions, suitable to the boisterous climate of their isles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian Isles live upon the roots which grow wild, and sea animals. They do not employ themselves in catching fish, though the rivers abound with all kinds of salmon, and the sea with turbot. Their clothes are made of the skins of birds, and of sea otters.

The Fox islands are so called from the great number of black, gray, and red foxes with which they abound. The dress of the inhabitants consists of a cap, and a fur coat which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird-skin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fishing caps they place a small board like a skreen, adorned with the jaw-bones of sea bears, and ornamented with glass beads which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing parties they use a much more showy sort of caps. They feed upon the flesh of all sorts of sea animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they choose to dress their victuals, they make use of a hollow stone : having placed their fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the interstices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provision intended for keeping is dried without salt in the open air. Their weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they use wooden shields.

The most perfect equality reigns among these islanders. They have neither chiefs nor superiors, neither laws nor punishments.

effected by all the efforts of the crown. The investigation of useful knowledge has also been greatly encouraged by the late empress of Russia : and the most distant parts of her vast dominions, and other countries and islands, have been explored, at her expence, by persons of abilities and learning ; in consequence of which considerable discoveries have been made.

They live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a race, who in case of an attack, or defence, mutually aid and support each other. The inhabitants of the same island always pretend to be of the same race; and every person looks upon his island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men of the village meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women, who sing and dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the feast. They feed their children when very young with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea side, and, whether it be summer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them against the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the least inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings; but when they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or else they set fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have a good share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but let an injury, or even a suspicion only, rouse them from this phlegmatic state, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without any regard to the consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide; the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair, and they put an end to their days with great apparent insensibility.

THE INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS:

THE JAPAN ISLANDS consist of three large and a great number of small islands, which constitute together what has been called the empire of JAPAN. They are situate about 150 miles east of China, between the 30th and 41st degree of north latitude, and between the 130th and 142d of east longitude. The largest of these islands is called by the Japanese, Nippon or Nipon; but by the Chinese, Sippon and Jepuen, whence the European name of Japan. It is about 750 miles in length and 80 in breadth. The islands of which this kingdom consists are divided into seven departments, which again are subdivided into sixty-eight provinces, and these into six hundred and four districts.

The whole country consists almost entirely of mountains, hills, and vallies, and a plain of any extent is scarcely to be seen. One of the highest mountains is named Fusi: its summit reaches above the clouds, and it may be seen at the distance of many leagues. There are several volcanoes in these islands, one of which is constantly in a state of eruption. Gold is found in several parts; but it is prohibited to dig more than a certain stated quantity; nor can any mine of any metal whatever be opened and wrought, without the emperors express permission. The heat in summer is very great, and would be insupportable, were not the air cooled by the sea breezes. The cold in winter is equally severe: the weather is in general changeable, and a great deal of rain falls in the rainy season, rendering the soil which is most industriously cultivated, exuberantly fertile. There seems to be no peculiar animals in these islands. These are buffaloes, wolves, foxes, and dogs. The horses, cattle, and sheep, are very few for a country so populous. Its population, however, is not known with any degree of certainty; but if, as some accounts have stated, it maintains nearly half a million of men in arms, the number of inhabitants may be conjectured to be between twenty and thirty millions.

The complexions of the Japanese are in general yellowish, although some few, chiefly women, are almost white. Their narrow eyes and eye-brows are like those of the Chinese and Tartars, and their noses are short and thick. Their hair is universally black.

The dress of the Japanese may with more propriety be termed national, than that of any other part of the world; as it not only differs from that of every other nation, but is uniform from the monarch down to the most inferior subject, similar in both sexes, and (which almost surpasses belief) has been unchanged for the space of 2500 years. It consists of one or more loose gowns, tied about the middle with a sash. People of rank have them made of silk, but the lower class of cotton stuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or silver flowers woven into the stuff. Their houses are built with upright posts, crossed and wattled with bamboo, plastered both without and within, and white-washed. They generally have two stories; but the uppermost is low, and seldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made.

The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. The public buildings, such as temples and palaces, are larger, it is true, and more conspicuous, but in the same style of architecture; and the roofs, which are decorated with several towers of a singular appearance, are their greatest ornaments.

The towns are sometimes of a considerable size, always secured with gates, and frequently surrounded with walls and fosses, and adorned with towers, especially if a prince or governor of a province keeps his court there. The town of Jeddo, the capital of the island of Nippon, and of the whole country, is said to be twenty-one hours walk in circumference, or about twenty-one French leagues, and may vie in size with Peking. The streets are straight and wide, and at certain distances divided by gates; and at each gate there is a very high ladder, from the top of which any fire that breaks out may be discovered, an accident that not unfrequently happens there several times in the week.

The furniture of Japan is as simple as the style of building. Neither cupboards, bureaux, sofas, beds, tables, chairs, watches, looking-glasses, or any thing else of the kind, are to be found in the apartments. To the greater part of these the Japanese are utter strangers. Their soft floor mats serve them for chairs and tables. A small board, about twelve inches square, and four in height, is set down before each person in company at every meal, which is served up one dish only at a time. Mirrors they have, but never fix them up in their houses as ornamental furniture; they are made of a compound metal, and used only at their toilets. Notwithstanding the severity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houses from November to March, they have neither fire-places nor stoves; instead of these they use large copper pots standing upon legs. These are lined on the inside with loam, on which ashes are laid to some depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which seems to be prepared in some manner which renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The first compliment offered to a stranger, in their houses, is a dish of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are used by both sexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inseparable companions. The whole nation are naturally cleanly; every house, whether public or private, has a bath, of which constant and daily use is made by the whole family. Obedience to parents and respect to superiors, are the characteristics of this nation. Their salutations and conversations between equals abound also with civility and politeness; to this children are early accustomed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very severe; but punishments are seldom inflicted. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes against society are committed. Commerce and manufactures flourish here; though as these people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which we see in Europe.

The islands of Japan are governed by a despotic sovereign called the Kubo; besides whom there is a spiritual or ecclesiastical emperor called the Dairi. The veneration entertained for the latter is little short of the honours paid to their gods. He seldom goes out of his palace, his person being considered as too sacred to be exposed to the air, the rays of the sun, or the view of the common people. He is brought into the world, lives, and dies, within the precincts of his court: the boundaries of which he never once exceeds during his whole life. His hair, nails, and beard, are accounted so sacred, that

they are never suffered to be cleansed or cut by day-light; but this must be done by stealth, during the night, whilst he is asleep. His holiness never eats twice off the same plate, nor uses any vessel for his meals a second time: they are immediately broken to pieces after they are used, to prevent their falling into unhallowed hands. He has twelve wives, only one of whom, however, is styled empress. He confers all titles of honour; but the real power of government is exercised by the kubo.

The Japanese are gross idolaters, and so irreconcilable to Christianity, that it is commonly said the Dutch, who are the only European nation with whom they now trade, pretend themselves to be no Christians, and humour the Japanese in the most absurd superstitions. But notwithstanding all this compliance, the natives are very shy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagasaki, in the island of Dezima, is the only port they are suffered to enter. The Japanese trade with no foreign nation but the Dutch and Chinese; and in both cases with companies of privileged merchants. According to Thunberg, however, a late traveller to Japan, the trade of the Dutch to that country even in time of peace, was become so considerable in 1777, that the company only employed in it two ships. Formerly as they paid there no duty either on their exports, or imports, they were accustomed to send an annual present to the emperor, consisting of cloth, chintzes, cottons, stuffs, and trinkets. The Japanese are excellent workmen in iron and copper; their manufactures of silk and cotton yield to those of no eastern country; the excellence of their lacquered or japanned ware is well known; and their porcelain is deemed superior to that of China.

The island of FORMOSA is situate to the east of China, near the province of Fokien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, from south-east to north-west. This is a very fine island, and abounds in all the necessaries of life. That part of the island which lies to the west of the mountains belongs to the Chinese, who consider the inhabitants of the eastern parts as savages. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are Chinese, or at least have adopted their manners and habits.

The Chinese have likewise made themselves masters of several other islands in these seas, among which, that of AINAN is between sixty and seventy leagues long, and between fifty and sixty in breadth. It is distant only twelve miles from the main land of the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a shy and timid people, and live in the most unhealthy part of the island; the coast and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being possessed by the Chinese.

The LADRONE islands, of which the chief is Guam (in north latitude 14, east longitude 140) are about twelve in number. Their name signifies the island of robbers, the natives when they were first discovered by Magellan, or Magalhaens, being, like most other savages, much addicted to pilfering. These islands were then, it is said, very populous; Guam, which is about forty leagues in circuit, having thirty thousand inhabitants. Lord Anson, in his voyage round the world, landed at one of them (Tinian) where he found great refreshment for himself and his crew.

The PHILIPPINES are said to be 1100 in number, lying in the Chinese Sea (part of the Pacific Ocean) 300 miles south-east of China, of which Manilla, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spa-

niards, Portuguese, Pintadoes, or painted people, and Mestes, a mixture of all these. The property of the islands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been discovered by Magellan and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards, in the reign of Philip II, from whom they take their name. Their situation is such, between the eastern and western continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with all the islands and ports of the East Indies. Two ships from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the necessities of life, and beautiful to the eye. Venison of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a particular large species of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The nest of the bird saligan affords that dissolving jelly which is so voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive surprisingly in these islands. If a sprig of an orange or lemon tree is planted here, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; so that the verdure and luxuriance of the soil are almost incredible. The tree ammet supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane, which, if cut, yields clear water enough for a draught; this abounds in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the distance of three leagues, and defended by the castle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the English under general Draper and admiral Cornish, who took it by storm, and humanely suffered the archbishop, who was the Spanish viceroy at the same time, to ransom the place for about a million sterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerously disowned by him and the court of Spain, so that great part of the ransom never was paid. The Spanish government is settled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other islands, particularly Mindanao, the largest next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call sultans. The sultan of Mindanao is a Mahomedan.

Though these islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature, yet they are subject to most dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the soil is pestered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of their mountains are volcanoes.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE or CLOVE ISLANDS, are not out of sight of each other, and lie all within the compass of twenty-five leagues to the south of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of east longitude, and between one degree south, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. These islands produce neither corn nor rice, so that the inhabitants live upon bread made of sago. Their chief produce consists of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast quantities: which are monopolised by the Dutch with so much jealousy, that they destroy the plants, lest the natives should sell the supernumerary spices to other nations. These islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, subordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largest of them, though not more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria; and another called Fort Orange, in Machian.

The BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS, are situate between 127 and 128 degrees of east longitude, and between four and five south lati-

tude. Banda, or Lantor, is not more than eight miles in length, and five in breadth. The names of the other islands of this group are Rossigen, Nera, Gonong, Way, and Rhon. These islands were all subject to the Dutch, but were taken by the English in 1796, at which time their annual produce was about 163,000 pounds of nutmegs, and 46,000 pounds of mace. The nutmeg-tree grows to the size of a pear-tree, the leaves resembling those of the laurel, and bears fruit from the age of ten to one hundred years. The great nutmeg harvest is in July and August.

AMBOYNA. This island is, in some respects, the most considerable of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is situate in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degrees of south latitude, 120 leagues to the eastward of Batavia. It is about 70 miles in circumference. When the Portuguese were driven off this island, the trade of it was carried on by the English and Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter, in first torturing and then murdering the English, and thereby engrossing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten. This tragical event happened in 1621. Amboyna was taken by the English, with the other Spice Islands, in 1796; but they were all restored by the treaty of Amiens in 1802.

The island of **CELEBES**, or **MACASSAR**, is situated under the equator, between the island of Borneo and the Spice Islands, at the distance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long and 200 broad. This island, notwithstanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north and periodical rains. Its chief productions are pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the study of poisons, with a variety of which nature has furnished them. The Dutch have a fortification on this island; but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom resides in the town of Macassar. In this, and indeed in almost all the oriental islands, the inhabitants live in houses built on large posts, which are accessible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their security against venomous animals. They are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chinese. Their port of Jampoden is the most capacious of any in that part of the world.

GILOLO, situate likewise under the equator, is about 230 miles long and 40 broad, produces rice and sago, but no spices, though it lies so near the Spice Islands. It is inhabited by a fierce and savage race of people.

CERAM is about 190 miles long and 40 broad. The Dutch have a fort here; and have destroyed almost all the clove-trees on the island, to enhance the value of those on the other islands.

The **SUNDA ISLANDS** are situate in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of east longitude, and between eight degrees north and eight degrees south latitude, comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Balley, Lamboe, Banca, &c. The three first, from their great extent and importance, require to be separately described.

BORNEO is said to be 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and, till New-Holland was discovered to be an island, was considered as the largest island in the world. The inland part of the country is marshy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The soil produces rice, cotton, canes,

pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ourang-outang is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational beings, to resemble a man the most. The original inhabitants live in the mountains, and make use of poisoned darts ; but the sea-coast is governed by Mahommedan princes. The chief port of this island is Benjar-Masseen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the east, and Java on the south-east, from which it is separated by the Straits of Sunda ; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees and upwards north-west of it, and five on the south-east ; and is 1000 miles long and 100 broad. This island produces so much gold that it has been thought to be the Ophir* mentioned in the scriptures ; but Mr. Marsden in his late history of the island, thinks it was unknown to the ancients. Its chief trade with the Europeans is in pepper. The English East India company have two settlements here, Bencoolen and Fort Marlborough, from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Achen is the chief of the Mahommedan princes who possess the sea coasts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes ; and the natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the same with those of the adjacent islands.

Rain is very frequent here ; sometimes very heavy, and almost always attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, and there are several volcanoes on the island. The people who inhabit the coast are Malays, who came hither from the peninsula of Malacca ; but the interior parts are inhabited by a very different people, and who have hitherto had no connection with the Europeans. Their language and character differ much from those of the Malays ; the latter using the Arabic character. The people between the districts of the English company and those of the Dutch at Palimban, on the other side of the island, write on long narrow slips of the bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom, and write from the left hand to the right, contrary to the custom of other eastern nations. These inhabitants of the interior parts of Sumatra are a free people, and live in small villages called Doosans, independent of each other, and governed each by its own chief. All of them have laws, some written ones, by which they punish offenders, and terminate disputes. They have almost all of them, and particularly the women, large swellings in the throat, some nearly as large as a man's head, but in general as big as an ostrich's egg, like the goiters of the Alps. That part of this island which is called the Cassia country, is well inhabited by a people called Battas, who differ from all the other inhabitants of Sumatra in language, manners, and customs. They have no king, but live in villages independently of each other, and generally at variance with one another. They fortify their villages very strongly with double fences of camphor-plank, pointed, and placed with their points projecting outwards ; and between these fences they place pieces of bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewise pointed, which are concealed by the grass, but which will run quite through a man's foot. Such of their enemies whom they take prisoners they put to death and eat ; and their skulls they hang up as tro-

* There is a mountain in the island which is called Ophir by the Europeans, whose summit, above the level of the sea, is 13,842 feet, exceeding in height the Peak of Teneriffe by 577 feet.

phies in the houses where the unmarried men and boys eat and sleep. They allow of polygamy: a man may purchase as many wives as he pleases; but their number seldom exceeds eight. All their wives live in the same house with the husband, and the houses have no partition; but each wife has her separate fire-place. It is in this country that most of the cassia sent to Europe is produced. The cassia-tree grows to fifty or sixty feet in height, with a stem of about two feet in diameter, and a beautiful and regular spreading head. Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the island of **ENGANHO**, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers which entirely surround it. It is inhabited by naked savages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs, and speak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring islands.

The greatest part of **JAVA** belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is **Batavia**, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of six degrees south, at the mouth of the river **Jucata**, and furnished with one of the finest harbours in the world. The town itself is built in the manner of those in **Holland**, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and surrounded with regular fortifications; but its suburbs are said to be ten times more populous than itself. The government here is a mixture of eastern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers, and with a splendour superior to that of any European potentate, except upon some solemn occasions. This city is as beautiful as it is strong; and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues, render it a most agreeable residence. The description of it, its government, and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel where the governor has his palace, commands the town and suburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almost every nation in the world: the Chinese residing in this island were computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarously massacred, without the smallest offence ever proved upon them, in 1740. This massacre was too unprovoked and detestable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, sent him back to be tried at **Batavia**; but he never has been heard of since. A Dutch garrison of 3000 men constantly resides at **Batavia**; and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the island, and the neighbourhood of the city.

The **ANDAMAN** and **NICOBAR** islands. These islands lie at the entrance of the bay of **Bengal**, and furnish provisions, consisting of tropical fruits and other necessaries, for the ships that touch there. They are otherwise too inconsiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by a harmless inoffensive people.

CEYLON. This island, though not the largest, is thought to be, by nature, the richest and finest island in the world. It is situated in the Indian Ocean, near **Cape Comorin**, the southern extremity of the **Hither Peninsula of India**, being separated from the coast of **Coromandel** by a narrow strait, and is 250 miles long, and 200 broad. The natives call it, with some show of reason, the terrestrial paradise; and it produces, besides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, silk, tobacco, ebony, musk, crystal, saltpetre, sulphur, lead, iron, steel, copper; besides cinnamon, gold and silver, and all kinds of precious stones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowl and fish

abound here. Every part of the island is well wooded and watered; and besides some curious animals peculiar to itself, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, especially if spotted; but several noxious animals, such as serpents and ants are likewise found here. The chief commodity of the island is its cinnamon, which is by far the best in all Asia. Though its trees grow in great profusion, yet the best is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, late the chief settlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle part of the country is mountainous and woody, so that the rich and beautiful vallies were left in possession of the Dutch, who had in a manner shut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which stands on a mountain in the middle of the island, so that he had scarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own dominions. The descendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglasses; who, though idolaters, value themselves upon maintaining their ancient laws and customs. They are in general, a sober inoffensive people; and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portuguese, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to observe, that the cinnamon-tree, which is a native of this island, has two (if not three) barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the best; and the body of the tree, which, when stripped, is white, serves for building and other uses. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delicious island to defend them against the Portuguese, whom they expelled, and afterwards monopolised it to themselves. In January 1782, Trincomale, the chief sea-port of the island, was taken by the English, but soon afterwards retaken by the French, and restored to the Dutch by the following treaty of peace. In August, 1795, it was again taken by the English, to whom it was confirmed by the treaty of Amiens, and in whose possession it still remains.

THE MALDIVES. These are a vast cluster of small islands or little rocks just above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly resorted to by the Dutch, who carry on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of small shells, which go, or rather formerly went, for money, upon the coast of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medical capacity. "Of this tree (says a well informed author) they build vessels of twenty or thirty tons; their hulls, masts, sails, rigging, anchors, cables, provisions, and firing, are all from this useful tree."

We have already mentioned BOMBAY, on the Malabar coast, in speaking of Hindoostan. With regard to the language of all the Oriental islands, nothing can be said. Each island has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch, and Indian words, are so frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in those matters, to know the radical language. The same may be almost said of their religion; for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahomedan, Jewish, Christian, and other foreign superstitions.

AFRICA.

AFRICA, the third grand division of the globe, in shape bears some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern part of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean; and the point or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land about sixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez; and its utmost length from north to south, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 south latitude, is 4900 miles; and the broadest part, from Cape Verd, in 17-20 degrees west longitude, to Cape Guardasui, near the straits of Babel-Mandel, in 51-20 east longitude, is 4500 miles from east to west. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, which separates it from Europe; on the east by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divide it from Asia; on the south by the Southern Ocean; and on the west by the Great Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America. As the equator divides this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far greater part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almost insupportable to an European, it being there increased by the rays of the sun, from vast deserts of burning sands. The coast, however, and banks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile; and most parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as Europe and Asia. From what has been said, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, snow seldom falls in the plains; and it is generally never found but on the tops of the highest mountains. The natives in these scorching regions would as soon expect that the marble should melt, and flow in liquid streams, as that the water by freezing should loose its fluidity, be arrested by the cold, and ceasing to flow, become like the solid rock.

The most considerable rivers in Africa are the Gambia, which falls into the Atlantic or Western Ocean at Cape St. Mary, and is navigable for ships of 150 tons burthen five hundred miles from its source; the Senegal, which rises about one hundred miles east of the Gambia, and falls, likewise, into the Atlantic Ocean, about eighty miles north of Cape Verd, after running a much longer course; the Niger, which rises about ninety miles to the east of the head of the Senegal, and runs

eastward* by Tombuctoo, Houssa, and Cashna, terminating, as it is supposed, in some lakes farther to the eastward; and the Nile, which, dividing Egypt into two parts, discharges itself into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious course from its source in Abyssinia. The most considerable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the Western Ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt; it had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of astronomy, who used to observe the stars from its summit; on which account the poets represent him as bearing the heavens on his shoulders; the Mountains of the Moon, extending themselves between Abyssinia and Monomotapa or Mocaranga, and which are still higher than those of Atlas; those of Sierra Leone, or the Mountains of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. These latter were styled by the ancients the Mountains of the God, on account of their being subject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their first meridian, is about two miles high, in the form of a sugar-loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name near the coast. The most noted capes or promontories in this country are Cape Verd, so called because the land is always covered with green trees and mossy ground; it is the most westerly point of the continent of Africa; and the Cape of Good Hope, so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it in 1489, and discovered the passage to Asia. This is the southern extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots; and the general rendezvous of ships of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one strait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

The situation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, standing as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the rest. That it abounds with

* This river has long been an object of research and dispute with respect to its origin and course. According to Mr. Lucas's communications to the African Association, "the rise and termination of the Niger are unknown, but the course is from east to west." He adds, "so great is its rapidity, that no vessel can ascend its stream; and such is the want of skill, or such the absence of commercial inducements, among the nations which inhabit its borders, that, even with the current, neither vessels nor boats are seen to navigate. That the people who live in the neighbourhood of the Niger should refuse to profit by its navigation may justly surprise the traveller; but much greater is his astonishment when he finds that even the food which the bounty of the stream would give, is uselessly offered to their acceptance; for such is the want of skill, or such the settled dislike of the people to this sort of provision, that the fish, with which the river abounds, are left in undisturbed possession of the waters." (Proceedings of the African Association, p. 183, 189.) It was also generally believed that the Gambia and Senegal were branches of the Niger. All these reports are, however, fully disproved by the late discoveries of Mr. Park, who reached the banks of the Niger, or, as it is called by the natives, the Joliba, at Sego, the capital of Bambarra, where he saw it "flowing slowly to the eastward." On the river were numerous canoes; and proceeding farther, he tells us, that he "passed a great many villages inhabited chiefly by fishermen, who caught great plenty of fish, by means of long cotton nets, which they make themselves, and use nearly in the same manner as nets are used in Europe." Those who would see more concerning this celebrated river, and the different opinions and notices of ancient and modern geographers and travellers, relative to its rise, course, and termination, may consult the ample and ingenious disquisition on that subject, in Major Rennell's *Geographical Illustration of Africa*, subjoined to Mr. Park's Travels.

gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English, and the French, who have settlements on the coast of Africa, but that of the most authentic ancient historians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles of sea-coast, with noble, large, deep rivers, it should have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them: and that it should be inhabited by an innumerable people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of these rivers are the most excellent harbours, deep, safe, calm, sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandise. In short, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable under proper improvements, of producing so many things, delightful as well as convenient, within itself, seems to be almost entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unsolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but also by the more civilized Europeans who are settled in it, particularly the Portuguese.

Africa once contained several kingdoms and states eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful state of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itself, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the assistance of the Mauritanians, subdued Carthage, and, by degrees, all the neighbouring kingdoms and states. After this, the natives, constantly plundered, and consequently impoverished, by the governors sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was overrun by the Vandals, who contributed still more to the destruction of arts and sciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the seventh century. These were succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahommedan religion, whose professors carried desolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mahommedans, and Christians. The first are the more numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope; and these are generally black. The Mahommedans, who are of a tawny complexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coast. The people of Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews in the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is possessed of.

Though we are little acquainted with the boundaries, and even with the names of many of the inland countries of Africa, that continent may be divided according to the following table.

	Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Distance and bearing from London.	Difference of time from London.	Religion.
Barbary.	Morocco	500	480	219,400	Fez	1080 S.	0 24 after	Mahom.
	Tasileet, &c.				Algier			
	Algers				Tunis			
	Tripoli				Polemota			
	Barca							
	Egypt	600	250	140,700	Grand Cairo	1920 S. E.	2 21 before	Mahom.
Up. Ethiopia.	Biledulgerid	2500	350	485,000	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 after	Pagans.
	Zaara	3400	660	739,200	Tegessa	1800 S.	0 24 after	Pagans.
	Negroland	2200	840	1,026,000	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 after	Pagans.
	Guinea	1800	360	510,000	Benin	2700 S.	0 20 before	Pagans.
	Nubia	940	600	264,000	Nubia	2418 S. E.	2 12 before	Mah. & Pa.
	Abyssinia	900	800	378,000	Gondar	2880 S. E.	2 30 before	Christians.
	Abex	540	130	160,000	Doncala	3580 S. E.	2 36 before	Chr. & Pa.
	The middle parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 square miles.							
Lower Guinea.	Loango	410	300	49,400	Loango	3300 S.	0 44 before	Chr. & Pa.
	Congo	540	420	172,800	St. Salvador	3480 S.	1 0 before	Chr. & Pa.
	Angola	360	250	38,400	Loando	3750 S.	0 58 before	Chr. & Pa.
	Benguela	430	180	64,000	Benguela	3900 S.	0 58 before	Pagans.
	Mataman	450	240	144,000	No Towns	*****	*****	Pagans.
	Ajan	900	300	234,000	Brava	3702 S. E.	2 40 before	Pagans.
	Zanguebar	1400	350	275,000	Melinda or Mozambique	4440 S. E.	2 38 before	Pagans.
	Monomotapa	960	660	222,500	Monomota	4500 S.	1 18 before	Pagans.
	Monemugi	900	660	310,000	Chicova	4260 S. E.	1 44 before	Pagans.
	Sosola	480	300	97,000	Sosola	4600 S. E.	1 18 before	Pagans.
	Terra de Nat.	600	350	184,000	No Towns	*****	*****	Pagans.
	Caffraria or Hottentot	708	660	200,340	Cape of Good Hope	5200 S.	1 4 before	Most stupid Pagans.

The principal islands in Africa lie in the Indian Seas and Atlantic Ocean; of which the following belong to, and trade with, the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from Asia.

ISLANDS.	Sq. Miles.	TOWNS.	Trade with, or belonging to
Babel Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea	3,600	Babel-Mandel	All Nations
Zocotra in the Indian Ocean	1,000	Caulasia	Ditto
The Comora isles, ditto	168,000	Joanna	Ditto
Madagascar, ditto	1,840	St. Austin	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto	2,100	Mauritius	French
Bourbon, ditto		Bourbon	Ditto
St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean		St. Helena	English
Ascension, ditto			Uninhabited
St. Matthew, ditto			Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, Prince Island, } ditto		St. Thomas, Anaboa	Portuguese
Fernandopo			
Cape Verd Islands, ditto	2,000	St. Domingo	Ditto
Goree, ditto		Fort St. Michael	French
Canaries, ditto		Palma St. Christopher	Spanish
Madeiras, ditto	1,500	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portuguese
The Azores, or Western Isles, lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Africa, and America. } ditto	2,000	Angra, St. Michael	Ditto

We shall now proceed to describe particularly the more considerable countries of Africa, as far as they are known to Europeans, from the accounts of the latest travellers; beginning, as usual, from the west and north, with the states of Barbary.

STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head are included the countries of, 1, Morocco and Fez; 2, Algiers; 3, Tunis; 4, Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south by Tafillet; and on the east by Segelmessa, and the kingdom of Algiers; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the east, and Morocco on the south, and is surrounded on other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Mount Atlas, and on the west by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafillet. According to Dr. Shaw, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and east; and the kingdom of Algiers on the west; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the south; being 220 miles in length from north to south, and 170 in breadth from east to west.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south by the country of the Beriberes; on the west, by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and the territory of the Gadamis; and on the east by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the sea-coast; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs.

The Barbary states form a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal polity; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE....The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other states, except in the months of July and August. These states, under the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of their soils formed those magazines which furnished all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wines, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their government, yet they are still fertile; not only in the above mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and, by the report of the Europeans

who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for the great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahommedan law, and make free with excellent wines and spirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces saltpetre, and great quantities of excellent salt; and lead and iron have been found in several places of Barbary.

ANIMALS....Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the states of Barbary; but their deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones are occasionally imported into England. Dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, a most serviceable creature, begot by an ass upon a cow, are their beasts of burden.

But from the services of the camel they derive the greatest advantages. This useful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilsome journies across the continent. The camel is, therefore (says Mr. Bruce) emphatically called the Ship of the Desert. He seems to have been created for this very trade, endued with parts and qualities adapted to the office he is employed to discharge. The driest thistle, and the barest thorn, is all the food this useful animal requires; and even these, to save time, he eats while advancing on his journey, without stopping, or occasioning a moment of delay. As it is his lot to cross immense deserts, where no water is found, and countries not even moistened by the dew of heaven, he is endued with the power, at one watering place, to lay in a store with which he supplies himself for thirty days to come. To contain this enormous quantity of fluid, nature has formed large cisterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws at pleasure the quantity he wants, and pours it into his stomach with the same effect as if he then drew it from a spring; and with this he travels, patiently and vigorously, all day long, carrying a prodigious load upon him, through countries infected with poisonous winds, and glowing with parching and never-cooling sands.

Their cows are but small and barren of milk. Their sheep yield indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles, are found here. Besides vermin, says Dr. Shaw, (speaking of his travels through Barbary) the apprehensions we are under, in some parts at least of this country, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous spider, rarely failed to interrupt our repose; a refreshment so very grateful, and so highly necessary to a weary traveller. Partridges, quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild-fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the capsa-sparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the sweetness of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird; but it cannot live out of its own climate. The seas and bays of Barbary abound with the finest and most delicious fish of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES....We know of few or no natural curiosities in these countries, excepting the salt-pits, which in some places take up an area of six miles. Dr. Shaw mentions springs found here,

that are so hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS....Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 100,000 houses, whereas at present it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it be true, that their king or emperor has 80,000 horse and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is said to contain 100,000 Mahomedans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Christian slaves; but no estimate can be formed as to the populousness of its territory. Some travellers report that it is inhabited by a friendly hospitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from those of the metropolis.

Tunis is the most polished republic of all the Barbary states. The capital contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradesmen's shops; and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses. The Tunisians are indeed exceptions to the other states of Barbary; for even the most civilized of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their distinctions are well kept up, and proper respect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned professions. They cultivate friendship with the European states; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are said at present to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The women are handsome in their persons; and though the men are sun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate; nor are they less neat and elegant in their dress; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the same pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made use of when she is said (2 Kings, chap. ix, verse 30,) to have painted her face: the words of the original being, that she set off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen in general are sober, orderly, and clean in their persons, their behaviour complaisant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the city.

Tripoli was once the richest, most populous, and opulent of all the states on the coast; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are said to amount to between 400,000 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much the same with those of the Egyptians already described. The subjects of the Barbary states, in general subsisting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a prize at sea; they are notwithstanding, far inferior to the English, and other European states, both in the construction and management of their vessels. They are, if we except the Tunisians, void of all arts and literature. The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's service, are beyond all description; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country are an hospitable inoffensive people; and indeed it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those who are of Arabic descent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to lose, they are peaceable among themselves. The Moors are suppo-

sed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppressed by a handful of insolent domineering Turks, the refuse of the streets of Constantinople.

The dress of these people is a linen shirt, over which they tie a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and over that a loose coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have slippers on their feet; and persons of condition sometimes wear buskins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their slippers when they attend religious duties, or the person of their sovereign. They are fond of striped and fancied silks. The dress of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a sort of cawl on their heads instead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houses consists of carpets and mattresses, on which they sit and lie. In eating, their slovenliness is disgusting. They are prohibited gold and silver vessels; and their meat, which they swallow by handfuls, is boiled or roasted to rags.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES....Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom; but now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but by the best accounts the common people live in a very slovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses, and 107 mosques. Their public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is very beautiful, the city being built on the declivity of a mountain: but, though for several ages it has braved some of the greatest powers in Christendom, it could make but a faint defence against a regular siege; and it is said that three English fifty-gun ships might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour. The Spaniards, however, attacked it, in 1775, by land and by sea, but were repulsed with great loss, though they had nearly 20,000 foot and 2000 horse, and 47 king's ships, of different rates, and 346 transports. In the years 1783 and 1784, they also renewed their attacks by sea to destroy the city and galleys; but, after spending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or destruction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a small island where there is a castle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these states, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. Tunis, built near the original site of Carthage, has a wall and fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods: but, like Algiers, it is distressed for want of fresh water; that of rain, preserved in cisterns, is chiefly used by the inhabitants.

The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but great inconveniences attend its situation, particularly the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors.

Constantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides excepting the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. The city of Fez, at present the capital of the kingdom so called, is said to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners. Its mosques amount to 500; one of them is magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about two miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, consort to Charles II, of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and it must have been a most noble acquisition, had not the misunderstanding between the king and his parliament occasioned him to blow up its fortifications and demolish its harbour; so that, from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing-town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, besieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuán, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houses: but the inhabitants are said to be rich, and tolerably civilized in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Taflet, and Gesula, form no part of the states of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious. Caara is a desert country, thinly peopled, and almost destitute both of water and provisions.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE....The lower subjects of these states know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be supplied with necessary utensils and manufactures; so that their exports consist chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, sword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and softer than those of Turkey, though not so good in other respects. As they leave almost all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Christians settled among them, the latter have established silk and linen works, which supply the higher ranks of their own subjects. They have no ships, that, properly speaking, are employed in commerce; so that the French and English carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their exports, besides those already mentioned, consist in elephants teeth, ostrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and sandarach. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade by caravans to Mecca and Medina, and to the inland parts of Africa, whence they bring back great numbers of negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, are but half of those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and, when detected, are seldom punished.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT....In Morocco, government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters : nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hands, and it is seldom that they regard the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however, of the caliphate government still continue ; for, in places where no military officer resides, the mufti, or high-priest, is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the grand-seignor to be his superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance as the chief representative of Mahommed. What has been said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkish pasha or dey, who governs in the name of the grand-seignor, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious subjects to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every soldier in the army has a vote in choosing the succeeding dey ; and though the election is often attended with bloodshed, yet it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognized and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte ; but that is seldom refused, as the divan is no stranger to the dispositions of the people. This power of the dey is despotic ; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000*l.* a year, without greatly oppressing his subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand-seignor is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the king of Morocco ; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil ; and in all matters of importance the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which consists of thirty pashas. These pashas seldom fail of forming parties amongst the soldiers against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council ; and the strongest candidate then fills the place. Sometimes he is deposed ; sometimes, though but very seldom, he resigns his authority to save his life, and it is seldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited : but an unsuccessful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, seldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES....Those of Algiers have been already mentioned, but they are now said to be exceeded by those of Tunis. They consist of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Christians, a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, because none of his subjects can be said to possess any property. From the manner of his living, his attendants, and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of Christian slaves are his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of the other states,

which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahommedan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He derives likewise considerable profits from the Negroland and other caravans, especially the slave-trade towards the south. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000*l.* a year. A detachment of the army of these states is annually sent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes they take at sea sometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives.

MILITARY AND MARINE FORCE....The king of Morocco, it is said, can bring into the field 100,000 men; but the strength of his army consists of cavalry mounted by his negro slaves. Those wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but that king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Sallee, and, being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, consisting of Turks and cologlies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About 1000 of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring 2000 Moorish horse into the field; but, as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little trusted. The e troops are under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary states maintain a force in proportion to their abilities; so that a few years ago they refused to send any tribute to the Turkish emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarcely any merchant ships belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which, though increased since the last attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and small, and some years ago did not exceed six ships, from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. With such a contemptible fleet, these infidels not only harass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of presents.

It has been often thought surprising, that the Christian powers should suffer their marine to be insulted by these barbarians, who take the ships of all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather, who do not pay them a subsidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwise than by supposing, first, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be the lord paramount; secondly, that no Christian power would be fond of seeing Algiers, and the rest of that coast, in possession of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would instantly carry their effects into the deserts and mountains, so that the benefit resulting from the conquest must be tedious and precarious. Indeed, expeditions against Algiers have been undertaken by the Spaniards, but they were ill-conducted and unsuccessful, as before noticed.

RELIGION....The inhabitants of these states are Mahomedans; but many subjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hammed, a modern sectarist, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the caliphs. All of them have much respect for idiots; and, in some cases, their protection screens offenders from punishment for the most notorious crimes. The Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of these states are now promiscuously called (because the Saracens first entered Europe from Mauritania, the country of the Moors) have in general adopted the very worst parts of the Mahomedan religion, and seem to have retained only as much as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is punished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes with impunity. All foreigners are allowed the open profession of their religion.

LANGUAGE...As the states of Barbary possess those countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is still spoken in some of the inland countries, and even by some inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the sea-port towns, and maritime countries, a bastard kind of Arabic is spoken, and seafaring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spanish, &c. that is so well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

ANTIQUITIES....The reader can scarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the most curious remains of antiquity: but they lie scattered amidst ignorant, barbarous inhabitants. Some memorials of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatness are still to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidence of their ancient grandeur and populousness. These point out the old *Julia Cæsarea* of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itself. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are still remaining, particularly at *Manuba*, a country-house of the bey, four miles from Tunis; but no vestige of its walls. The same is the fate of *Utica*, famous for the retreat and death of Cato; and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and so overrun is the country with barbarism, that their very sites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings, which remain in tolerable preservation. Besides those of classical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the most stupendous magnificence, are likewise found in this vast tract; these were erected under the caliphs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was subdued by the Turks, or reduced to its present form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime.

HISTORY.....Under the Roman emperors, the states of Barbary formed the fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century that, after these states had been by turns in possession of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the caliphs or Saracens of Bagdad conquered them, and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, from whence their posterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to their assistance the two famous brothers *Barbarossa*, who were admirals of the Turkish fleet, and who, after breaking the Spanish yoke,

imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states, excepting Morocco, their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but were unsuccessful ; and, as observed, the inhabitants have in fact shaken off the Turkish yoke likewise.

The emperors or kings of Morocco are the successors of those sovereigns of that country who were called sheriffs, and whose powers resembled that of the caliphate of the Saracens. They have been, in general, a set of bloody tyrants ; though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebastian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continual state of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes ever since : nor does the crown of Great Britain sometimes disdain, as in the year 1769, to purchase their friendship with presents.

EGYPT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	560	between	24 and 32	North latitude.	140,700.
Breadth	250		29 and 34	East longitude.	

BOUNDARIES....It is bounded by the Mediterranean sea on the north ; by the Red sea, east ; by Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia on the south ; and by the desert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
Northern division contains	Lower Egypt.	GRAND CAIRO, E. lon. 32.
		Bulac. [N. lat. 30.
		Alexandria.
		Rosetta, or Rashid.
		Damietta.
Southern division contains	Upper Egypt.	Sayd, or Thebes.
		Cossire.

The part of Lower Egypt between the branches of the Nile and the Mediterranean, was anciently called the Delta, from the resemblance of its triangular shape to the Greek letter of that name. It is now called by the Arabs Bahira and Rif.

MOUNTAINS, DESERTS, OASES....Egypt, to the south of Cairo, is a narrow valley through which the Nile flows, and shut in by mountains, beyond which, on both sides, but especially on the west, are vast sandy deserts. In some parts of these deserts, at the distance of one hundred miles or more to the west of the Nile, are small fertile spots of cultivated land, situated like islands in the midst of an ocean of sand ; they are called Oases, the name by which they were known to the ancient Greeks, and by the Arabs Elwah. Those with which we are now acquainted are in number three ; the Great Oases, in lat. 26 deg. 30 min. N. the Lesser Oases, about 40 miles to the north of the former, and the Oases Siwah, in lat. 29 deg. 12 min. N. long. 44 deg. 54 min. E. The Great Oases is said to be twenty-five leagues in length, and four or five in breadth. That of Siwah was visited by Mr. Browne in 1792 : it is about six miles long, and four and a half or five wide. A large proportion of this space is filled with date trees ; but there are also pomegranates, figs, olives, apricots, and plantains, and the gardens are remarkably flourishing. A considerable quantity of rice is cultivated here. This has been supposed to be the Oases where the famous temple of Jupiter Ammon anciently stood. Mr. Browne found here the ruins of an edifice which appeared to be the work of the ancient Egyptians, as the figures of Isis and Anubis were conspicuous among the sculptures. Here are also catecombs, or ancient places of sepulture. This Oases has since been visited by Mr. Horneman, who travelled under the patronage of the African society. He observed the ruins which had been discovered by Mr. Browne ; and from a comparison of the observations of both these travellers with the accounts of ancient authors, major Rennell seems to entertain no doubt that this is the true situation of that celebrated temple.

RIVERS....The only river of this country is the celebrated Nile, which is formed by the junction (in the country of Sennaar, between Egypt and Abyssinia) of two great rivers, one of which, called the Bahr el Azrek, or the Blue river, rises in Abyssinia, where its source is honoured as the head of the Nile, and will be described in our account of that country. The other river, which, as being the longest and largest stream, is rather to be considered as the true Nile, is called the Bahr el Abiad, or the White river, and rises at a place named Douga, about ten days' journey south of Darfur, or the country of Fur, and twenty days' journey from the confines of Bornou, among the Gebel el Cumri, or Mountains of the Moon. Douga, according to Mr. Browne, lies in about 7 degrees of north latitude, and 25 of east longitude. The whole length of the course of the Nile may be estimated at about 2000 miles.

LAKES....In the northern part of Egypt, or Lower Egypt, are several lakes, the largest of which is the lake of Menzala, which is separated from the Mediterranean only by an extremely narrow ridge of land, and communicates with that sea by one or two outlets. It is sixty miles long, and from two to twelve broad. The lake of Bereios, which adjoins in like manner to the Mediterranean, between Damietta and Rosetta, is thirty miles long, and about ten broad. The lake of Kerun, or Birket el Kerun, forty miles to the south-west of Alexandria, is thirty miles in length, and about six in breadth. The ancient lake of Marcotis is now dry.

METALS, MINERALS....Egypt appears not to be productive of any metals. The mountains contain various kinds of marbles, as porphyry, the celebrated verde antico, or green marble, with white and dark spots; and many valuable gems, as the emerald, topaz, chalcedony, onyx, &c.

CLIMATE, AIR....It is observed by M. Volney, that during eight months in the year, from March to November, the heat is almost insupportable by an European. "During the whole of this season, the air is inflamed, the sky sparkling, and the heat oppressive to all unaccustomed to it." The other months are more temperate. The southerly winds which sometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called poisonous winds, or the hot winds of the desert. They are of such extreme heat and aridity, that no animated body exposed to them can withstand their fatal influence. During the three days which it generally lasts, the streets are deserted; and woe to the traveller whom this wind surprises remote from shelter: when it exceeds three days, it is insupportable. Very frequently the inhabitants are almost blinded with drifts of sand. These evils are remedied by the rising and overflowing of the Nile.

SOIL AND PRODUCE....Whoever is in the least acquainted with literature, knows that the vast fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain (little falling in that country) but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to rise when the sun is vertical in Ethiopia; and the annual rain falls there, viz. from the latter end of May to September, and sometimes October. At the height of its flood in the lower Egypt, nothing is to be seen in the plains but the tops of forests and fruit trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with all sorts of festivities. The banks, or mounds, which confine it are cut by the Turkish pasha, attended by his grantees; but according to Norden, who was present on the occasion, the

spectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is led into what they call the khalige, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, such is the fertility of the soil, that the labour of the husbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and, in about six weeks, nothing can be more charming than the prospect which the face of the country presents, in rising corn, vegetables, and verdure of every sort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits perfume the air. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar-canes, and other plants which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantains, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harvest months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and one of cucumbers (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants) one of corn and one of melons. The Egyptian pasturage is equally prolific, most of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the sheep four lambs a year.

Among the plants of Egypt should also be mentioned the papyrus, of which the ancients made their paper, though their mode of preparing it is now unknown; and the lotus, a kind of water-lily, abounding in the Nile. The pith of the papyrus is said to be a nourishing food.

The Egyptian mode of hatching chickens in ovens is very curious, and has been practised in Europe with success. Not less extraordinary and ingenious is the manner of raising and managing bees in that country. When the verdure and flowers fail in one part of Egypt, the proprietors of bees put their hives on board of large boats, each marking his own hive. The boatman then proceeds with them gently up the river, and stops with them wherever he perceives flowery meadows. The bees swarm from their cells at break of day, and collect honey, returning several times loaded with what they have obtained, and in the evening re-enter their hives, without ever mistaking their abode.

ANIMALS....Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said, that the inhabitants employ every day 200,000 oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, those people not being suffered by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river-horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is found in Upper Egypt. Tigers, hyænas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The camelion, a little animal something resembling a lizard, which occasionally changes colour, especially when irritated, is found here, as well as in other countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four short legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the sedge, and other cover, on the sides of rivers; and, pretty much resembling the trunk of an old tree, some-

times surprises the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces, likewise, great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its destroying serpents and pestiferous insects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong, that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

The cerastes, or horned viper, inhabits the greater part of the eastern continent, especially the desert sandy parts of it. It abounds in Syria, in the three Arabias, and in Africa: this is supposed to be the aspic which Cleopatra employed to procure her death. Alexandria, plentifully supplied by water, must then have had fruit of all kinds in its gardens. The baskets of figs must have come from thence, and the aspic, or cerastes, that was hid in them, from the adjoining desert, where there are plenty to this day.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS....As the population of Egypt is almost confined to the banks of the Nile, and the rest of the country inhabited by Arabs and other nations, we can say little upon this head with precision. Mr. Browne, who was in Egypt in 1792, estimates its whole population at two millions and a half. It seems, however, to be certain, that Egypt is at present not near so populous as formerly, and that its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being slaves to the Turks. They are, however still very numerous; but what has been said of the populousness of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The descendants of the original Egyptians are an ill-looking, slovenly people, immersed in indolence, and are distinguished by the name of Copts; in their complexions they are rather sun-burnt than swarthy or black. Their ancestors were once Christians, and, in general, they still pretend to be of that religion; but Mahomedanism is the prevailing worship among the natives. Those who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, consist of Arabs, or their descendants, who are of a deep swarthy complexion: they in general live in tents, tend their flocks, and have no fixed place of abode. The Turks who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Copts, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather slippers; the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow. The dress of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are silk, when they can afford it; and such of them as are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The women are not admitted into the society of men, even at table. When the rich are desirous of dining with one of their wives, they give her previous notice, when she accordingly prepares the most delicate dishes, and receives her lord with the greatest attention and respect. The women of the lower class usually remain standing, or seated in a corner of the room, while their husband is at dinner, and present him

with water to wash, and help him at the table. The Copts are an acute and ingenious people ; they are generally excellent accomptants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exercises and diversions are much the same as those usual in Persia and other Asiatic countries. All Egypt is overrun with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling sleight-of-hand men.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.... Among the cities of Egypt, Alexandria, as one of the most ancient, commercial, and best known to Europeans, may justly claim to be first mentioned. It is situate on the Mediterranean, in the most westerly part of Egypt, and was once the emporium of the world ; and by means of the Red Sea, furnished Europe, and great part of Asia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It stands forty miles west from the Nile, and a hundred and twenty north-west of Cairo. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-house erected on the opposite island of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. All the other parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at present is a very ordinary seaport, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithstanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their mosques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within these ruins, preserve an inexpressible air of majesty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the ancient Memphis.

Rosetta, or Raschid, stands twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and delightful prospects, which command the fine country, or island of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade.

Cairo, Kahira, or, as it is called by the Arabs, Masr, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air and narrow streets. It cannot, according to Mr. Browne, be estimated to contain less than 300,000 inhabitants. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old castle, the works of which are said to be three miles in circumference. This castle is said to have been built by Saladin : at the west end are the remains of very noble apartments, some of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in mosaic work ; but these apartments are now only used for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually sent to Mecca. The well, called Joseph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, where they show granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vast antiquity ; but it is very questionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is shewn in Old Cairo ; but Norden suspects it to be a Saracen work ; nor does he give us any idea of the buildings of the city itself. On the banks of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Giza, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles west is Bulac, called the port of Cairo. The Christians of Cairo practise a hoity cheat, during the Easter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead arise from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The streets of Cairo are pestered with the

jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing-camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor; the intense heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them a dancing whenever they hear it.

The other towns of note in Egypt are, Damietta, supposed to be the ancient Pelusium; Seyd, on the west bank of the Nile, 200 miles south of Cairo, said to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; by the few who have visited it, it is reported to be the most capital antique curiosity that is now extant; and Cossire, on the west coast of the Red Sea. The general practice of strangers who visit those places, is to hire a janissary, whose authority commonly protects them from the insults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a small town, and gives name to the isthmus that joins Africa with Asia.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE....The Egyptians export great quantities of manufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts, calicoes, yellow wax, sal ammoniac, saffron, sugar, sena, and cassia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, spices, calicoes, and other merchandises, which are landed at Suez, from whence they send them to Europe. Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt, but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews. A number of English vessels arrive yearly at Alexandria; some of which are laden on account of the owners, but most of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahommedan traders.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT....The government of Egypt, before the late invasion by the French, was both monarchical and republican. The monarchical was executed by the pasha, and the republican by the Mamalukes or sangiacs. The pasha was appointed by the grand-seignor, as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the aristocratical part of the government of Egypt, consisted of a divan composed of twenty-four sangiacs, beys, or lords. The head of them was called the sheilk-bellet, who was chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the pasha. Every one of these sangiacs was arbitrary in his own territory, and exercised sovereign power: the major part of them resided at Cairo. If the grand-seignor's pasha acted in opposition to the sense of the divan, or attempted to violate their privileges, they would not suffer him to continue in his post: and they had an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year sultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamalukes. At present, though the French have been driven out of Egypt by the British arms, and the country restored to the Turks, it is in a state of the greatest confusion, and can scarcely be said to have any settled form of government.

REVENUES....These are very inconsiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of the government. Some say that they amount to a million sterling, but that two-thirds of the whole is spent in the country.

MILITARY FORCE....This consists in the Mamalukes, some bodies of whom are cantoned in the villages to exact tribute, and support authority. The greater part are assembled at Cairo. They amount to about 8000 men, attached to the different beys, whom they enable to contend with each other, and to set the Turks at defiance.

RELIGION....To what has been already said concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahommedans are

enthusiasts, and have among them their *santos*, or fellows who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, and, without any ceremony, intrude into the best houses, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little. The Copts profess themselves to be Christians of the Greek church, but they embrace transubstantiation; in which, and other points, the catholics of Cairo think they approach their faith nearer than the Greeks. They have, however, adopted from the Mahommedans, the custom of frequent prostrations during divine service, ablutions, and other ceremonies. In religious, and, indeed, many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who, by the dint of money, generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

LITERATURE.... Though it cannot be doubted that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet scarcely a vestige of it remains among their descendants. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahommedan masters; but here it is proper to make one observation, which is of general use. The caliphs, or Saracens, who subdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mahommed, made war, from conscience and principle, upon all kinds of literature, excepting the Koran; and hence it was, that when they took possession of Alexandria, which contained the most magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuscripts were applied for some months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The caliphs of the second race were men of taste and learning, but of a peculiar character. They bought up all the manuscripts that survived the general conflagration, relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useless parts of philosophy; but they had no taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of caliphs, especially those who called themselves caliphs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks have riveted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed.

All the learning, therefore, possessed by the modern Egyptians consists in arithmetical calculation for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of the Mahommedan religion.

LANGUAGE.... The Coptic is the ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the caliphate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabesque, as it is called, is the current language; the Coptic, says Mr. Browne, may be considered as extinct: numerous and minute researches have enabled me to ascertain this fact. In Upper Egypt, however, they unknowingly retain some Coptic words.

ANTIQUITIES.... Egypt abounds more with these than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history itself, and their original uses are still unknown. The bases of the largest covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if measured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of

Egypt are the most stupendous, and, to appearance, the most useless structures that ever were raised by the hands of men.

The catacombs, or mummy-pits, so called from their containing the mummies, or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said, that some of the bodies thus embalmed are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth in Upper Egypt is a curiosity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly underground, and cut out of a marble rock, consisting, it is said, anciently, of twelve palaces or halls, and 3000 chambers, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Mœris was dug by the order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches, which still subsist, and are evidences of the utility, as well as grandeur, of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo is a continued scene of antiquities, of which the oldest are the most stupendous, but the more modern the most beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its sculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the shaft of which is one stone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedestal. The Sphinx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman, hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids. In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are still entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colour of their paintings, are as fresh and vivid as when first laid on.

HISTORY....It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs sat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyzes, king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians, 520 years before the birth of Christ; and that in the reign of these princes, those wonderous structures, the pyramids, were raised, which cannot be viewed without astonishment. Egypt continued a part of the Persian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquished Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conquests of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being seized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the share of Ptolemy, by some supposed to have been a half brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominions over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, ascended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been mistress successively to Julius Cæsar and Mark Antony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second caliph of the successors of Mahommed, who expelled the Romans after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to consist of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy: and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek; which translation is known by the name of the Septuagint. About the time of the cru-

sades, between the years 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Nouredin, whose son, the famous Saladin, proved so formidable to the Christian adventurers, and retook from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps of Mamalukes, who about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt for some time flourished under those illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, till the time of Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamalukes several bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

While Selim was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deserts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers, perceiving that it would be very difficult to extirpate those marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity is known all over Europe and Asia by the name of Gypsies.

An attempt was made a few years since, to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whose father was a priest of the Greek church. Ali having turned Mahomedan, and being a man of abilities and address, rendered himself extremely popular in Egypt. A false accusation having been made against him to the grand-seignor, his head was ordered to be sent to Constantinople: but, being apprised of the design, he seized and put to death the messengers who brought this order, and soon found means to put himself at the head of an army. Being also assisted by the dangerous situation to which the Turkish empire was reduced, in consequence of the war with Russia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient sultans of Egypt. But not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he also laid claim to Syria, Palestine, and that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient sultans. He marched at the head of his troops to support these pretensions, and actually subdued some of the neighbouring provinces, both of Arabia and Syria. At the same time that he was engaged in these great enterprises, he was not less attentive to the establishing of a regular form of government, and the introducing of order into a country that had been long the seat of anarchy and confusion. His views were equally extended to commerce; for which purpose he gave great encouragement to the Christian traders, and took off some shameful restraints and indignities to which they were subjected in that barbarous country. He also wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greatest assurances of his friendship, and that their merchants should meet with the utmost protection and safety. His great design was said to be, to make himself master of the red Sea; to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans; and to make Egypt once more the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey showed an extent of thought and ability that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and bespoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire. He assumed the titles and state of the ancient sultans of Egypt, and was ably supported by Sheik Daher, and some other Arabian princes, who warmly espoused his interests. He also succeeded in almost all his enterprises against the neighbouring Asiatic governors and pashas, whom he repeatedly defeated: but he was afterwards deprived of the kingdom of Egypt, by the base and ungrateful conduct

of his brother-in-law, Mahommed Bey Abudahab ; his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March, 1773. He was also himself wounded and taken prisoner ; and dying of his wounds, was buried honourably at Grand Cairo. Abudahab afterwards governed Egypt, as Sheik Bellet, and marched into Palestine to subdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead in his bed one morning at Acre, supposed to be strangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amnesty ; and, trusting to their assurances, embraced the captain pacha's invitation to dine on board his ship ; when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head cut off in the 85th year of his age.

A civil war now commenced between the adherents of Ali, and other beys or princes who rose on his ruins. Of these the principal were Murad and Ibrahim, who, having driven their enemies into banishment, began to quarrel among themselves ; till, at length, after having alternately expelled each other from Cairo, they agreed to a kind of compromise in March 1785.

From this time nothing of importance occurred till the invasion of Egypt by the French, of which some account has already been given in our summary of the affairs of France. The French made themselves masters of Cairo, and the whole of the Delta, forcing Murad Bey and the Mamalukes to take refuge in Upper Egypt ; but, after the departure of Bonaparte, general Kleber, who was left at the head of the army, concluded a treaty with the grand vizier, who had been sent against him with a powerful army ; by which the French troops were to be permitted to evacuate Egypt without molestation. But the British government, having, at the same time, sent orders to the English admirals in the Mediterranean to prevent the return of the French to Europe, general Kleber, having received notice of these orders, immediately attacked the Turks, and defeated them with great slaughter. Kleber was, some time after, assassinated, and Menou took the command of the French.

In the latter end of the year 1800, a strong force was sent out by the British government, to expel the French from Egypt. Admiral Keith commanded the fleet, and that gallant and experienced officer, sir Ralph Abercrombie, the land force. After many unexpected delays, the fleet arrived off Alexandria on the first of March, 1801. The troops made good their landing on the seventh and eighth of that month, and on the 13th gained a victory over the French, though with the loss of above 2000 men in killed, wounded and missing. On the 21st, a more decisive battle was fought, which ended in a complete victory on the part of the English, who, however, suffered a loss much to be lamented, in the death of the brave general Abercrombie, who was mortally wounded in this action, and died on the 28th. General Moore was also dangerously wounded. On the part of the enemy, the French general Roize was left dead on the field, and generals Lanusse and Rodet afterwards died of their wounds.

After the death of general Abercrombie, general, now lord Hutchinson took the chief command of the British forces. The town and castle of Rosetta was taken by a division of the English army, under colonel Spencer, aided by a body of Turks ; and early in May a force was detached to reduce Cairo. The French were defeated at Rhamanich by the Turks, assisted by the British ; and about the middle of June, the city of Cairo was invested on every side by the English

forces, and those of the grand vizier. On the 22d of that month, the garrison of Cairo sent a flag of truce to the English general, and after a negociation of several days, a convention was agreed to, by which the French army at Cairo and its dependencies, were to be conveyed in ships of the allied powers, and at their expence, together with their baggage, arms, ammunition, and effects, to the nearest French ports in the Mediterranean. The complete conquest of Egypt soon followed, by general Menou accepting the conditions of the convention of Cairo, for himself and the rest of the army under his command.

After the evacuation of Egypt by the French, the English endeavoured to effect a reconciliation between the Mamalukes and the Turks, to restore the former government of the country; but the Turks treacherously assassinating a number of the beys the remainder fled into Upper Egypt, and the Porte being unable to subdue them, at length concluded a treaty with them, by which they yielded to them possession of that part of the country. In consequence, however, of mutinies and intestine contentions among the Turkish troops, the Mamalukes have again returned into Lower Egypt, and the country is at present a scene of confusion and anarchy, alternately ravaged by the different contending parties.

ABYSSINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	800	} between	{	6 and 18 North latitude.	378,000.
Breadth	680			33 and 43 East longitude.	

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS....It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Sennaar, or Nubia; on the east by the Red sea and the country of Adel; on the south by the kingdom of Gingiro and Alaba; and on the west by Kordofan and Gorham.

It contains (according to Mr. Bruce, from whom the following account is chiefly taken) the following provinces, viz.

1, Masuah; 2, Tigre; 3, Samen; 4, Begemder; 5, Amhara; 6, Walaka; 7, Gojam; 8, Damot; 9, Maitsha; 10, Dembea; 11, Kuara; 12, Nara.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS....The surface of this country is generally rugged and mountainous; it abounds with forests and morasses, and it is also interspersed with many fertile vallies and plains that are adapted both to pasture and tillage. About the centre of the kingdom are the mountains of Lamalmon, and those of Amhara and Sameno, which latter are said to be the loftiest in the country, and in them numerous rivers arise and flow in all directions.

LAKES....The lake of Tzana or Denbea (not to mention those of Gooderoo and Court Ohha) is by much the largest expanse of water known in this country. Its extent, however, has been greatly exaggerated. Its greatest breadth is thirty-five miles, and its extent in length is forty-nine. The Nile, by a current always visible, crosses the end of it. In the dry months, from October to March, the lake shrinks greatly in size; but after that all those rivers are full which are on every side of it, and fall into the lake, like radii drawn to a centre; it then swells and extends itself into the plain country, and has of course a much larger surface.

There are about eleven inhabited islands in the lake. All these islands were formerly used as prisons for the great people, or for a voluntary retreat on account of some disgust or great misfortune, or as places of security to deposit their valuable effects during troublesome times.

RIVERS....The chief river is the Nile, or that branch of it named the Bahr el Azrek, or the Blue river, called by the Abyssinians Abawi. Besides this there are the Tacaze, the Kibbee, or, as the Portuguese call it, the Zibbee, the Mareb, and the Hawash, which falls into the Tacaze; and a great number of other smaller rivers.

METALS, MINERALS....Some gold is found among the sands of the rivers, and there are mines of fossil salt. The Abyssinians, in lieu of small money, frequently make use of pieces of rock salt, which are as

white as snow and hard as stone. According to some accounts this country produces emeralds estimated at a high value.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, SOIL, PRODUCE....The rainy season continues for six months of the year, from April to September, which is succeeded, without interval, by a cloudless sky and vertical sun : and cold nights, which as immediately follow these scorching days. The earth, notwithstanding the heat of these days, is yet perpetually cold, so as to feel disagreeable to the soles of the feet ; partly owing to the six months' rain, when no sun appears, and partly to the perpetual equality of nights and days.

The soil, though in many places thinly spread, is rendered fertile and productive by the rains and rivers. Wherever it can be tilled and well watered, it yields very large crops of wheat, barley, millet, and other grain. The inhabitants have two, and often three harvests in the year : and, where they have a supply of water, they may sow in all seasons ; many of their trees and plants retain their verdure, and yield fruit and flowers throughout the year : the west side of a tree blossoms first, and bears fruit ; then the south side ; next the north side ; and last of all the east side goes through the same process, towards the beginning of the rainy season.

VEGETABLES....The papyrus, which is a plant well known in Egypt, appears to have been early brought thither from Ethiopia. It is also found in Abyssinia. Balessar, balm, or balsam, is also a native of Abyssinia. The great value set upon this drug in the East remounts to very early ages. We know from Scripture, the oldest history extant, as well as the most infallible, that the Ishmaelites, or Arabian carriers and merchants trafficking with the India commodities into Egypt, brought with them balm as a part of their cargo. The ensete is an herbaceous plant, which grows and comes to great perfection at Gondar ; but it mostly abounds in that part of Maitsha and Goutto west of the Nile, where there are large plantations of it, and is there, almost exclusive of every thing else, the food of the Galla inhabiting that province. When soft, like the turnip well boiled, if eaten with milk or butter, it is the best of food, wholesome, nourishing, and easily digested. The teff is a grain commonly sown all over Abyssinia, where it seems to thrive equally on all sorts of ground ; from it is made the bread which is commonly used throughout this country. The Abyssinians indeed have plenty of wheat, and some of it of an excellent quality. They likewise make as fine wheaten bread as any in the world, both for colour and taste ; but the use of wheat bread is chiefly confined to people of the first rank. The acacia-tree is very common in Abyssinia, as are several other curious productions of the vegetable world.

ANIMALS....There is no country in the world which produces a greater number or variety of quadrupeds, whether tame or wild, than Abyssinia. Of the tame or cow kind, great abundance present themselves everywhere, differing in size, some having horns of various dimensions, some without horns at all ; differing also in the colour and length of their hair.

Among the wild animals are prodigious numbers of the gazel or antelope kind ; the bohur, sassa, feebo, and madequa, and many others. The hyæna is still more numerous. There are few varieties of the dog or fox kind. Of these the most numerous is the deep, or, as he is called, the jackal ; this is precisely the same in all respects as the

deep of Barbary and Syria, who are heard hunting in great numbers, and howling in the evening and morning. The wild boar, smaller and smother in the hair than that of Barbary or Europe, but differing in nothing else, is met frequently in swamps or banks of rivers covered with wood.

The elephant, rhinoceros, giraffa, or camelopardalis, are inhabitants of the low hot country; nor is the lion, leopard, or saadh, which is the panther, seen in the high and cultivated country. The hippopotamus and crocodile, abound in all the rivers, not only of Abyssinia, but as low down as Nubia and Egypt. There are many of the ass kind in the low country towards the frontiers of Atbara, but no zebras; these are the inhabitants of Fazuelo and Narea.

But of all the other quadrupeds, there is none exceeds the hyæna for its merciless ferocity. They were a plague, says our author, speaking of these animals, in Abyssinia, in every situation, both in the city and the field, and I think surpassed the sheep in number. Gondar was full of them from the time it turned dark till the dawn of day, seeking the different pieces of slaughtered carcasses, which this cruel and unclean people expose in the streets without burial.

It is a constant observation in Numidia, that the lion avoids and flies from the face of man, till by some accident they have been brought to engage, and the beast has prevailed against him; then that feeling of superiority imprinted by the Creator in the heart of all animals for man's preservation, seems to forsake him. The lion, having once tasted human blood, relinquishes the pursuit after the flock. He repairs to some highway or frequented path, and has been known, in the kingdom of Tunis, to interrupt the road to a market for several weeks; and in this he persists till hunters or soldiers are sent out to destroy him.

The number of birds in Abyssinia exceeds that of other animals beyond proportion. The high and low countries are equally stored with them: the first kind are the carnivorous birds. Many species of the eagle and hawk, many more still of the vulture kind, as it were, overstock all parts of the country. That species of glee called hadgdaya, so frequent in Egypt, comes very punctually into Ethiopia, at the return of the sun, after the tropical rains. The nissar, or golden eagle, is not only the largest of the eagle kind, but one of the largest birds that flies. From wing to wing he is eight feet four inches. The black eagle, rachama, erkoom, moroc, sheregrig, and waalia, are particularly described by the historian of Abyssinia, to whose celebrated work we refer the reader who is desirous of information concerning them.

There is no great plenty of water-fowl in Abyssinia, especially of the web-footed kind. Vast variety of storks cover the plains in May, when the rains become constant. All the deep and grassy bogs have snipes in them; and there are swallows of many kinds unknown in Europe: those that are common in Europe appear in passage at the very season when they take their flight from thence. There are few owls in Abyssinia, but those are of an immense size and beauty. There are no geese, wild or tame, excepting what is called the Golden Goose, Goose of the Nile, or Goose of the Cape, common in all the south of Africa; these build their nests upon trees, and, when not in water, generally sit upon them.

From the class of insects, we shall select the most remarkable, viz. the tsaltsalya, or fly, which is an insect that furnishes a striking proof

how fallacious it is to judge by appearances. If we consider its small size, its weakness, want of variety or beauty, nothing in the creation is more contemptible or insignificant; yet passing from these to his history, and to the account of his powers, we must confess the very great injustice we do him from want of consideration. We are obliged with the greatest surprise to acknowledge, that those huge animals, the elephant, the rhinoceros, the lion, and tiger, inhabiting the same woods, are still vastly his inferiors, and that the appearance of this small insect, nay, his very sound, though he is not seen, occasions more trepidation, movement, and disorder, both in the human and brute creation, than would whole herds of these monstrous animals collected together, though their number was, in a ten-fold proportion, greater than it really is.

This insect has not been described by any naturalist. It is in size very little larger than a bee, of a thicker proportion. As soon as this plague appears, and their buzzing is heard, all the cattle forsake their food, and run wildly about the plain, till they die, worn out with fatigue, fright, and hunger. No remedy remains but to leave the black earth, and hasten down to the sands of Atbara; and there they remain while the rains last, this cruel enemy never daring to pursue them farther. Though the size of the camel is immense, his strength vast, and his body covered with a thick skin, defended with strong hair, yet still he is not capable to sustain the violent punctures the fly makes with his pointed proboscis. He must lose no time in removing to the sands of Atbara; for, when once attacked by this fly, his body, head, and legs break out into large bosses, which swell, break, and putrify, to the certain destruction of the creature.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES....Of these the principal are the spring which the Abyssinians consider as the source of the Nile, and the cataracts of that river.

The Agows (a people of a certain district) of Damot, pay divine honours to the Nile; they worship the river, and thousands of cattle have been offered, and still are offered, to the spirit supposed to reside at the sources. The village of Geesh, though not farther distant than 600 yards, is not in sight of the sources of the Nile. In the middle of a marsh near the bottom of the mountain of Geesh, arises a hillock of a circular form, about three feet from the surface of the marsh itself, though apparently founded much deeper in it. The diameter of this is something short of twelve feet; it is surrounded by a shallow trench, which collects the water, and voids it eastward; it is firmly built with sod or earthen turf, brought from the sides, and constantly kept in repair, and this is the altar upon which all their religious ceremonies are performed. In the middle of this altar is a hole, obviously made, or at least enlarged, by the hand of man. It is kept clear of grass or other aquatic plants, and the water in it is perfectly clear and limpid, but has no ebullition or motion of any kind discernible upon its surface. This mouth or opening of the source is some parts of an inch less than three feet in diameter, and the water stood about two inches from the lip or brim. The spring is about six feet six inches deep.

Ten feet distant from the first of these springs is the sacred fountain, about eleven inches in diameter; but this is eight feet three inches deep: and about twenty feet distant from the first, is the third source, its mouth being something more than two feet large, and it is five feet eight inches deep. With a brass quadrant of three feet

radius, Mr. Bruce found the exact latitude of the principal fountain of the Nile to be 10 deg. 59 min. 25 sec. though the Jesuits have supposed it 12 deg. N. by a random guess. The longitude he ascertained to be 36 deg. 55 min. 30 sec. east of the meridian of Greenwich.

The great cataract of Alata (for we shall omit describing those of inferior note) Mr. Bruce tells us, was the most magnificent sight he had ever beheld. The height has been rather exaggerated. The missionaries say the fall is about sixteen ells, or fifty feet. The measuring is, indeed, very difficult; but, by the position of long sticks, and poles of different lengths, at different heights of the rock from the water's edge, Mr. Bruce thinks he may venture to say that it is nearer forty feet than any other measure. The river had been considerably increased by rains, and fell in one sheet of water, without any interval, above half an English mile in breadth, with a force and a noise that was truly terrible, and which stunned, and made him for a time perfectly dizzy. A thick fume or haze covered the fall all round, and hung over the course of the stream, both above and below, marking its track, though the water is not seen. The river, though swelled with rain, preserved its natural clearness, and fell, as far as he could discern, into a deep pool, or bason, in the solid rock, which was full, and in twenty different eddies to the very foot of the precipice; the stream, when it fell, seeming part of it to run back with great fury upon the rock, as well as forward in the line of its course, raising a wave, or violent ebullition, by chasing against each other.

We shall here subjoin a summary of the account our author gives of the causes of the inundation of the Nile.

The sun being nearly stationary for some days in the tropic of Capricorn, the air there becomes so much rarefied, that the heavier winds, charged with watery particles, rush in upon it from the Atlantic on the west, and from the Indian ocean on the east. Having thus gathered such a quantity of vapours as it were to a focus, the sun now puts them in motion, and drawing them after it in its rapid progress northward, on the 7th of January, for two years together, seemed to have extended its power to the atmosphere of Gondar, when, for the first time, there appeared in the sky white, dappled, thin clouds, the sun being then distant 34 deg. from the zenith, without any one cloudy or dark speck having been seen for several months before. Advancing to the line with increased velocity, and describing larger spirals, the sun brings on a few drops of rain at Gondar the 1st of March, being then distant 5 deg. from the zenith; these are greedily absorbed by the thirsty soil; and this seems to be the farthest extent of the sun's influence capable of causing rain, which then only falls in large drops, and lasts but a few minutes: the rainy season, however, begins most seriously upon its arrival at the zenith of every place, and these rains continue constant and increasing after he has passed it, in his progress northward.

In April, all the rivers in Amhara, Begemder, and Lasta, are first discoloured, and then beginning to swell, join the Nile in the several parts of its course nearest them; the river then, from the height of its angle of inclination, forces itself through the stagnant lake without mixing with it. In the beginning of May hundreds of streams pour themselves from Gojam, Damot, Maitsha, and Dembea, into the lake Tzana, which had become low by intense evaporation, but now begins to fill insensibly, and contributes a large quantity of water to the Nile, before it falls down the cataract of Alata. In the beginning of June,

the sun having now passed all Abyssinia, the rivers there are all full ; and then is the time of the greatest rains in Abyssinia, while it is for some days, as it were, stationary in the tropic of Cancer.

Immediately after the sun has passed the line, he begins the rainy season to the southward, still as he approaches the zenith of each place : but the situation and necessities of this country being varied, the manner of promoting the inundation is changed. A high chain of mountains runs from above 6 deg. south all along the middle of the continent towards the Cape of Good Hope, and intersects the southern parts of the peninsula, nearly in the same manner that the river Nile does the northern. A strong wind from the south, stopping the progress of the condensed vapours, dashes them against the cold summits of this ridge of mountains, and forms many rivers, which escape in the direction either east or west as the level presents itself. If this is towards the west, they fall down the sides of the mountains into the Atlantic, and if on the east, into the Indian ocean.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.... The Abyssinians are in general tall and well made. They are of a dark olive complexion ; their features are proportionate ; their eyes large, black, and sparkling ; their noses rather high than flat ; their lips small ; and their teeth extremely white and handsome. With respect to their disposition, they are mild and docile, and in their general conduct sober and temperate.

The dress of persons of quality is a long fine vest, either of silk or cotton, tied about the middle with a rich scarf. The common people have only a pair of cotton drawers, and a kind of scarf, or piece of the same linen with which they cover the rest of the body. The habit of women of the superior class consists of the richest silks, ornamented, according to their rank, with trinkets and jewels, images, and relics of various kinds. Women in general are allowed to appear in public, and to converse freely with the men, without any of those restrictions to which the Turkish women are commonly subject. The women of superior condition are not very guarded in their conduct, but those of inferior rank are more faithful to their husbands ; and they also willingly submit to the meaner and more laborious offices of domestic life. It is their business to grind corn for the family, which they perform daily, by means of hand-mills.

Although we read in the accounts of the Jesuits, says Mr. Bruce, a great deal about marriage and polygamy, yet there is nothing which may be averred more truly than that there is no such thing as marriage in Abyssinia, unless it be that which is contracted by mutual consent, without other form, subsisting only till it is dissolved, by dissent of one or the other, and to be renewed or repeated as often as it is agreeable to both parties. There is no such distinction as legitimate and illegitimate children, from the king to the beggar. Their funerals are attended with many superstitious ceremonies : the relations, friends, and a number of hired mourners bewail the dead for many days together, with loud shrieks and lamentations ; and the women make wounds in their faces with their nails.

The Abyssinians neither eat nor drink with strangers ; and they break or purify every vessel which has been used by them. They eat raw flesh, and even cut it from the living animal, according to Mr. Bruce, who tells us that, in the neighbourhood of Axum, he met with some travellers who were driving a cow before them. He afterwards found that they cut steaks from the higher part of the buttock : they then closed the wound by drawing the skin over it, and applied to it a

cataplasms of clay. They then drove the animal before them, in order to supply them and their companions with another meal. At their feasts, according to the same traveller, they have a bull or cow, one or more, according to the number of guests, which are tied at the door of the house in which they are assembled. From these animals square pieces of flesh are cut and served up on round cakes of unleavened bread, made of teff. As no person of any fashion feeds himself, or touches his own meat, the women take the steak, while the motion of the fibres is distinctly seen, cut it into small pieces, well pepper them, and wrap them up in the teff-bread like so many cartridges. In this form they are put into the mouths of the guests, who, like birds fed by their dam, are opening their mouths to receive the morsels that are ready, as fast as they can be prepared for them. The females, after having thus supplied the male guests, eat till they are satisfied, and then all drink together. The victim is still bleeding, writhing, and roaring at the door. When the animal has bled to death, the cannibals tear the remaining flesh from the thighs with their teeth, like dogs. Such is Mr. Bruce's description of an Abyssinian feast.

The offering of meat and drink in Abyssinia is an assurance of safety to the person to whom it is offered. Many of the customs of this country resemble those of the ancient Persians and Egyptians.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS....Gondar, the metropolis of Abyssinia, is situated upon a hill of considerable height, the top of it nearly plain, on which the town is placed. It consists of about ten thousand families in time of peace; the houses are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the construction within the tropical rains. On the west of the town is the king's house, formerly a structure of considerable consequence. It was a square building flanked with square towers. It was formerly four stories high, and from the top of it had a magnificent view of all the country southward to the lake Tzana. Great part of this house is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is still ample lodging in the two lowest floors of it, the audience-chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

The palace and all its contiguous buildings are surrounded by a substantial stone wall thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner, by which you can go along the whole, and look into the street. There appear to have been never any embrasures for cannon, and the four sides of the walls are above an English mile and a half in length. Gondar, by a number of observations of the sun and stars, is in N. lat. 12 deg. 34 min. 30 sec. its longitude is 37 deg. 33 min. east from Greenwich.

Dixan is the first town in Abyssinia, on the side of Taranta. It is built on the top of a hill perfectly in form of a sugar-loaf; a deep valley surrounds it every where like a trench, and the road winds spirally up the hill till it ends among the houses. It is true of Dixan, as of most frontier towns, that the bad people of both contiguous countries resort thither. The town consists of Moors and Christians, and is very well peopled; yet the only trade of either of these sects is a very extraordinary one, that of selling children. The Christians bring such as they have stolen in Abyssinia to Dixan as to a sure deposit; and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Masuah, whence they are sent over to Arabia or India. The priests of the province of Tigré, especially those near the

rock Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice. Dixan is in lat. 14 deg. 57 min. 55 sec. north, and long. 40 deg. 7 min. 30 sec. east of the meridian of Greenwich.

Axum is supposed to have been once the capital of Abyssinia, and its ruins are now very extensive : but, like the cities of ancient times, consists altogether of public buildings. In one square, which seems to have been the centre of the town, there are forty obelisks, none of which have any hieroglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece of granite, and, on the top of that which is standing, there is a patera exceedingly well carved, in the Greek taste. Axum is watered by a small stream, which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley where stands the rows of obelisks. The spring is received into a magnificent bason 150 feet square, and thence it is carried at pleasure, to water the neighbouring gardens, where there is little fruit excepting pomegranates, neither are these very excellent. The latitude of this town is 14 deg. 6 min. 36 sec. north.

Masuah. The houses of this town, which is situated upon an island bearing the same name on the Abyssinian shore of the Red Sea, are in general built of poles and bent grass, as in the towns of Arabia ; but besides these there are about twenty of stone, six or eight of which are two stories each, N. lat. 15 deg. 35 min. 5 sec. E. long. 39 deg. 36 min. 30 sec.

TRADE.... There is a considerable deal of trade carried on at Masuah, narrow and confined as the island is, and violent and unjust as is the government. But it is all done in a slovenly manner, and for articles in which a small capital is invested. Property here is too precarious to risk a venture in valuable commodities where the hand of power enters into every transaction.

Gondar, and all the neighbouring country depend for the necessaries of life, cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of such articles, upon the Agows, who inhabit a province in which the sources of the Nile are found, and which province is no where sixty miles in length, nor half that in breadth. These Agows come constantly in succession, a thousand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with these commodities, to the capital.

It may naturally occur, that, in a long carriage, such as that of a hundred miles in such a climate, butter must melt, and be in a state of fusion, consequently very near putrefaction : this is prevented by the root of an herb, called Moc-moco, yellow in colour, and in shape nearly resembling a carrot : this they bruise and mix with their butter, and a very small quantity preserves it fresh for a considerable time.

GOVERNMENT.... The government of Abyssinia has always been monarchical and despotic ; the sovereign exercising absolute dominion over the lives, liberties, and fortunes of his subjects, and possessing uncontrollable authority in all matters ecclesiastical as well as civil. His will is the universal law, there neither being, nor ever having been, any written laws to restrain the royal power, or to secure the property or privileges of the subject. The monarchs of Abyssinia claim descent from Menilek, the son of Solomon, as they pretend, by the queen of Sheba. The crown is hereditary in this family, but elective as to the person. A peculiar custom formerly prevailed of confining all the princes of the blood royal in a palace on a high mountain, during their lives, or till they were called to the throne ; but this practice, it appears, has now fallen into disuse.

REVENUE....This arises from different imposts on the trade of the country ; the sale of the great places of the kingdom ; and a tenth levied every third year, on all the cattle in the empire. The whole amount of these is not easily estimated, but it appears that it falls very short of what might be expected from a country of which the sovereign is the sole proprietor and disposer.

ARMY....The military force of this country, according to Mr. Bruce, has been greatly exaggerated : that traveller does not suppose that any king of Abyssinia ever commanded 40,000 effective men at any time or on any occasion, exclusive of his own household troops, which are about 8000 infantry.

ROYAL TITLE, ARMS....The Abyssinian monarchs assume the title of Nagush or Neguz, and are always addressed either by that or Nagusha Nagasht king of kings ; or by that of Natzehe, which is equivalent to the French Sire. Those who approach them prostrate themselves before them ; and when they are seated in council, they are concealed from view.

The device of these sovereigns is a lion passant proper in a field gules, with this motto, *Mo Anbasa am Nizilet Solomon am Negade Jude....* "The lion of the race of Solomon and tribe of Judah hath overcome."

RELIGION....The inhabitants of Abyssinia consist of Christians, Jews, Mahommedans, and Pagans : about one third part are Mahommedans, who are every where intermixed with the Christians. The Pagans are chiefly the Gallas, beside some others who are dispersed through several of the provinces of the Abyssinian empire.

Mr. Bruce informs us, from the annals of Abyssinia, that in the time of Solomon all this country was converted to Judaism, and the government of the church and state modelled according to what was then in use at Jerusalem.

Some ecclesiastical writers, rather from the attachment to particular systems, than from any conviction that the opinion they espouse is truth, would persuade us, that the conversion of Abyssinia to Christianity happened in the days of the apostles ; but it appears that this was effected by the labours of Frumentius (the apostle of the Abyssinians) in the year of Christ 333, according to our account.

Their first bishop, Frumentius, being ordained about the year 333, and instructed in the religion of the Greeks of the church of Alexandria, by St. Athanasius, then sitting in the chair of St. Mark ; it follows that the true religion of the Abyssinians, which they received on their conversion to Christianity, is that of the Greek church. They receive the holy sacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruised with the husk together as it grows, so that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat spoon. They observe also circumcision.

The Abyssinian church is governed by a bishop or metropolitan, styled Abuna (our father) and sometimes, though improperly, patriarch, sent them by the Coptic patriarch of Alexandria, residing at Cairo, who is the only person that ordains priests.

LITERATURE....With respect to arts and sciences, the Abyssinians are very uninformed, and will probably long continue so, both from the form of their government, and their natural indolence, and from the little intercourse they have with any nations in which knowledge is cultivated.

LANGUAGE....A variety of languages are spoken in this country. The Jews speak a dialect of the Hebrew ; the Moors an impure Arabic ; the Gallas have likewise a language of their own. The dialect of the court is that of Amhara ; that of Tigré, however, approaches nearest to the old Ethiopic, which has a considerable affinity to the Arabic, and is called *leshone geez*, or the learned language ; and is still used not only in all their literary and religious books, but also in their public instruments and records.

HISTORY....As the accounts of kings and princes of remote ages are not always entertaining, and as the history of so barbarous and uncivilized a people will, we presume, afford but small amusement to our readers, whatever satisfaction they may have received from surveying the manners and customs of the people, and the natural history of the country ; we shall, therefore, make no further apology for omitting the account of the annals of Abyssinia, but refer those who have any desire of information upon this subject, to the second volume of the Travels of our adventurous author, where they will find a very ample detail through more than 700 pages of a ponderous quarto.

INTERIOR COUNTRIES OF AFRICA.

FEZZAN, BORNOU, CASHNA TOMBUCTOO, HOUSSA, DAR-FUR, &c.

IT having been long a subject of complaint that Europeans know very little, if any thing, of the interior districts of Africa, a number of learned and opulent individuals formed themselves into a society for the purpose of exploring them. The association was formed on the 9th of June, in the year 1788; and on the same day a committee of its members, viz. lord Rawdon, the Bishop of Landaff, sir Joseph Banks, Mr. Beaufoy, and Mr. Stuart, were invested with the direction of its funds, the management of the correspondence, and the choice of persons to whom the geographical mission was to be assigned. Persuaded of the importance of the object which the association had in view, their committee lost no time in executing the plan which it had formed. Two gentlemen were recommended to them; and appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected researches, they were chosen. One was Mr. Ledyard; the other a Mr. Lucas.

‘Mr. Ledyard undertook, at his own desire, the difficult and perilous task of traversing from east to west, in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the widest part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure he left London June 30, 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of August.

‘Here he transmitted such accounts to his employers as manifest him to have been a traveller who observed, reflected, and compared; and such was the information which he collected here from the travelling slave-merchants, and from others, respecting the interior districts of Africa, that he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the committee, that his next communication would be from Sennaar, (six hundred miles to the south of Cairo:) but death attributed to various causes, arrested him at the commencement of his researches, and disappointed the hopes which were entertained of his projected journey.

‘Mr. Lucas embarked for Tripoli, October 18, 1788, with instructions to proceed over the desert of Zahara to Fezzan, to collect, and to transmit, by way of Tripoli, whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan, or the traders thither, might be able to afford respecting the interior of the continent; and to return by the way of Gambia, or the coast of Guinea.

‘Instructions to undertake great enterprises, are more easily given than executed. So Mr. Lucas found; only a part of the plan was this geographical missionary able to carry into execution. He set out, indeed, mounted on a handsome mule, presented to him by the bey, the pasha's eldest son, in company with the shereefs, for the kingdom of Fezzan, intending to penetrate from Tripoli even to Gambia; but his

peregrinations, which began February 1, 1790, terminated at Mesurata on February 7.

‘Deprived of visiting Fezzan, and the other inland districts of Africa, Mr. Lucas solicited the information of his fellow travellers, and transmitted to the society the result of his conferences with a shereef Imhammed, who described the kingdom of Fezzan to be a small circular domain, placed in a vast wilderness, as an island in the midst of the ocean, containing near a hundred towns and villages, of which Mourzook is the capital, distant, south from Mesurata, about three hundred and ninety miles. In this kingdom are to be seen some venerable remains of ancient magnificence, some districts of remarkable fertility, and numerous smoking lakes, producing a species of fossil alkali called *trona*.’ We shall presently give a more circumstantial and authentic account of this country, from the description of it by Mr. Horneman, a later traveller under the patronage of the African society, who was at Mourzook, and resided there several months in the years 1798 and 1799.

‘The narrative proceeds to state, that south-east of Mourzook, at the distance of one hundred and fifty miles, is a sandy desert, two hundred miles wide; beyond which are the mountains of Tibesti, inhabited by ferocious savages, tributary to Fezzan. The vallies between the mountains are said to be fertilised by innumerable springs, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibestins to the king of Fezzan is twenty camel-loads of senna.

‘This kingdom is inconsiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou and Cashna, or Kassina, which lie south of Fezzan, occupying that vast region which spreads itself from the river of the Antelopes for twelve hundred miles westward, and includes a great part of the Niger’s course. Cashna, or Kassina, we are informed, contains a thousand towns and villages; and in Bornou, which is still more considerable, thirty languages are said to be spoken. The latter is represented as a fertile and beautiful country; its capital being situated within a day’s journey of the river *Wod-el-Gazel*, which is lost in the sandy waters of the vast desert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdsmen, dwelling, like the old patriarchs, in tents, and whose wealth consists in their cattle.* (Bornou, or Beetnoa, is a word signifying the land of Noah; for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark.) Though they cultivate various sorts of grain, the use of the plough is unknown; and the hoe is the only instrument of husbandry. Here grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes and lemons, and two species of melons, the water and the musk, are produced in large abundance; but one of the most valuable of its vegetables is a tree called kedeyna, which in form and height resembles the olive, is like the lemon in its leaf, and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the shell are both in great estimation, the first as a fruit, the last on account of the oil which it furnishes when bruised, and which supplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a substitute for the oil of olives (p. 130.) Bees, it is added, are so numerous, that the wax is often thrown away as an article of no value in the market. Many

* Horses and horned cattle, goats, sheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country.

other particulars are added, for which we must refer to the work. The population is described by the expression, a countless multitude. We shall pass over the nature of their religion, which is Mahomedan; of their government, which is an elective monarchy; and the singular mode of their electing a new king from among the children of the deceased sovereign: but the account of the present sultan, his wives and his children (p. 227) is too curious not to be exhibited.

“The present sultan, whose name is Ali, is a man of an unostentatious, plain appearance; for he seldom wears any other dress than the common blue shirt of cotton or silk, and the silk or muslin turban, which form the usual dress of the country. Such, however, is the magnificence of his seraglio, that the ladies who inhabit it are said to be five hundred in number, and he himself is described as the reputed father of three hundred and fifty children, of whom three hundred are males; a disproportion which naturally suggests the idea that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural affection the joy of seeing herself the supposed parent of a future candidate for the empire, sometimes exchanges her female child for the male offspring of a stranger.

“We are told that fire arms, though not unknown to the people of Bornou, are not possessed by them.

“South-east from Bornou lies the extensive kingdom of Begarmee; and beyond this kingdom are said to be several tribes of negroes, idolaters, and feeders on human flesh. These, we are told, are annually invaded by the Bergameese; and when they have taken as many prisoners as their purpose may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to Begarmee. It is farther said, that if any of them, exhausted by fatigue, happen to linger in their pace, one of the horse-men seizes on the oldest, and, cutting off his arm, uses it as a club to drive on the rest.

“We are not much disposed to give credit to this relation. That the negroes, who are sold for slaves, are different from the other Africans, is not probable; and that they should be driven along with the mangled limbs of their associates, utterly exceeds belief.

“The empire of Cashna bears a great resemblance to that of Bornou.

“After perusing what is here related of the extent, population, fertility, manufactures and commerce of these regions, we may be permitted to wonder at their having remained altogether unknown to Europeans. We cannot but suspect considerable exaggerations. That the interior parts of Africa are peopled, the caravans which go from Cairo and Tripoli, and which are often absent three years, sufficiently evince; but that they are divided into regular and civilized states, may be a question. A thousand towns and villages in one empire, and thirty different languages spoken in the other, manifest a disposition in the shereef Imhammed to enlargement, or, at least, to retail loose reports. That they should be acquainted with, yet not possess fire-arms, nor make any attempt to navigate the Niger, nor even to take the fish that abound in its waters, but little accords with the history of their commerce, and of their progress in manufactures.”

Under the patronage of the same society for making discoveries in the interior countries of Africa, Mr. Mungo Park has since performed a journey eastward from the mouth of the Gambia, to Silla,

on the river Niger, above a thousand miles from the Atlantic; and, to use the words of major Rennell, brought to our knowledge more important facts respecting the geography of western Africa, both moral and physical, than have been collected by any former traveller.

Mr. Park set out from Pisanía, a British factory on the banks of the Gambia, on the 2d of December 1795, and took his route through the kingdoms of Woolli, Bondou, Kayaaga, Kasson, Kaarta, and Ludamar, to Bambarra. The country of Woolli, he tells us, every where rises into gentle acclivities, which are generally covered with extensive woods, and the towns are situate in the intermediate vallies; the chief productions are cotton, tobacco, and different kinds of corn. Medina, the capital of this kingdom, is a place of considerable extent, and may contain from eight hundred to a thousand houses. The country of Bondou, like that of Woolli, is very generally covered with woods; but in native fertility, in the opinion of our traveller, is not surpassed by any part of Africa. The name of the capital of this country is Fatteconda. The inhabitants are of the tribe of the Foulahs, who are in general of a tawny complexion, with small features, and soft silky hair. The Foulahs of Bondou are naturally of a mild and gentle disposition: but they evidently consider all the negro natives as their inferiors; and when talking of different nations, always rank themselves among the white people. In Kayaaga, the next kingdom, the air and climate are more pure and salubrious than at any of the settlements towards the coast; the face of the country is every where interspersed with a pleasing variety of hills and vallies, and the windings of the Senegal river, which descends from the rocky hills of the interior, make the scenery on its banks very picturesque and beautiful. The inhabitants are called Serawoollies, or, as the French write it, Seracolets. Their complexion is a jet black; their government is a despotic monarchy; and they are habitually a trading people. In the kingdom of Kasson, of which Kooniakarry is the capital, from the top of a high hill Mr. Park had an enchanting prospect of the country. The number of towns and villages, and the extensive cultivation around them, surpassed every thing he had yet seen in Africa. A gross calculation may be formed of the number of inhabitants in this delightful plain, from the fact that the king of Kasson can raise four thousand fighting men by the sound of his war-drum. At Kenimoo, the capital of Kaarta, Mr. Park had an audience of the king, who advised him to return to Kasson; telling him it was not in his power at present to afford him much assistance, for that all kind of communication between Kaarta and Bambarra had been interrupted for some time past, in consequence of a war between the two kingdoms. Our traveller, however, resolved to continue his journey, and proceed, to Jarra, a town in the kingdom of Ludamar, whence he sent presents to Ali, the sovereign, then encamped at Benowm, requesting permission to pass through his territories. Several days afterwards, one of Ali's slaves arrived with instructions, as he pretended, to conduct him as far as Goomba, on the farther frontier; but before he arrived there, he was seized by a party of Moors, who conveyed him to Ali at Benowm, who detained him a prisoner more than three months. He, however, at length found means to make his escape, in the confusion which ensued in consequence of the success of the army of the king of Kaarta, who had invaded the country. His joy at his escape, he tells us, it is impossible to describe: but he soon

found that his real situation was distressful in the extreme : he was in the midst of a barren wilderness ; and, after travelling a long time, exposed to the burning heat of the sun, reflected with double violence from the hot sand, his suffering from thirst became so intolerable, that he fainted on the sand and expected the immediate approach of death. Nature, however, at length resumed its functions ; and, on recovering his senses, he found the sun just sinking behind the trees, and the evening become somewhat cool. It soon after rained plentifully for more than an hour, and he quenched his thirst by wringing and sucking his clothes, by which he was sufficiently relieved to enable him to pursue his journey ; and after travelling several days more, he at length came in sight of one of the principal objects pointed out for his research ; the river Niger. "I saw," says he, "with infinite pleasure, the great object of my mission ; the long sought for, majestic Niger, glittering to the morning sun, as broad as the Thames at Westminster, and flowing slowly to the eastward. I hastened to the brink, and, having drunk of the water, lifted up my fervent thanks in prayer to the Great Ruler of all things, for having thus far crowned my endeavours with success."

He had now reached Sego, the capital of Bambarra, which he thus describes : "Sego, properly speaking, consists of four distinct towns ; two on the northern bank of the Niger, and two on the southern. They are all surrounded with high mud walls ; the houses are built of clay, of a square form, with flat roofs ; some of them have two stories, and many of them are white-washed. Besides these buildings, Moorish mosques are seen in every quarter ; and the streets, though narrow, are broad enough for every useful purpose, in a country where wheel-carriages are entirely unknown. From the best inquiries I could make, I have reason to believe that Sego contains, altogether, about thirty thousand inhabitants. The view of this extensive city, the numerous canoes upon the river, the crowded population, and the cultivated state of the surrounding country, formed altogether a prospect of civilization and magnificence which I little expected to find in the bosom of Africa. Sego is situate, as nearly as can be ascertained, in north lat. 14 deg. 10 min. : west lon. 2 deg. 26 min.

From Sego, Mr. Park continued his journey along the banks of the Niger to Silla, a large town about eighty miles to the east of Sego : and here, the tropical rains being set in, his finances expended, and various other difficulties concurring to render his farther progress extremely dangerous, if not impracticable, he terminated his travels to the eastward, "at a point (says major Rennell) somewhat more than sixteen degrees east of Cape Verd, and precisely in the same parallel. The line of distance arising from this difference of longitude, is about 941 geographical miles, or 1090 British, within the western extremity of Africa ; a point which, although short by two hundred miles of the desired station, Tombuctoo, the attainment of which would unquestionably have been attended with great eclat, was yet far beyond what any other European, whose travels have been communicated to the European world, had ever reached."

Mr. Park gives the following account of Tombuctoo and Houssa, from the information he was able to collect concerning those cities, at Sego, and in the course of his journey :

"To the north-east of Massina (a kingdom on the northern bank of

the Nigèr, at a short distance from Silla) is situate the kingdom of Tombuctoo, the great object of European research; the capital of this kingdom being one of the principal marts for that extensive commerce which the Moors carry on with the Negroes. The hopes of acquiring wealth in this pursuit, and zeal for propagating their religion, have filled this extensive city with Moors and Mahomedan converts; the king himself, and all the chief officers of state, are Moors; and they are said to be more severe and intolerant in their principles than any other of the Moorish tribes in this part of Africa. I was informed by a venerable old negro, that when he first visited Tombuctoo, he took up his lodging at a sort of public inn, the landlord of which, when he conducted him into his hut, spread a mat on the floor, and laid a rope upon it, saying 'If you are a Mussulman, you are my friend; sit down: but if you are a kafir (infidel) you are my slave, and with this rope I will lead you to market.' The present king of Tombuctoo is named Abu Abraham. He is reported to possess immense riches. His wives and concubines are said to be clothed in silk, and the chief officers of state live in considerable splendour. The whole expence of his government is defrayed, as I was told, by a tax upon merchandise, which is collected at the gates of the city.

"The city of Houssa (the capital of a large kingdom to the eastward of Tombuctoo) is another great mart for Moorish commerce, I conversed with many merchants who had visited that city, and they all agreed that it is larger and more populous than Tombuctoo. The trade, police, and government, are nearly the same in both; but, in Houssa, the Negroes are in greater proportion to the Moors, and have some share in the government."

Mr. Park was likewise told by a shereef who resided at Walet, the capital of the kingdom of Beeroo, to the northward of Sego, and who had visited Houssa, and lived some years at Tombuctoo, "that Houssa was the largest town he had ever seen: that Walet was larger than Tombuctoo: but being remote from the Niger, and its trade consisting chiefly of salt, it was not so much resorted to by strangers: that between Benowm and Walet was ten days journey, but the road did not lead through any remarkable towns, and travellers supported themselves by purchasing milk from the Arabs, who keep their herds by the watering places: two of the days journey was over a sandy country without water. From Walet to Tombuctoo was eleven days more: but water was more plentiful, and the journey was usually performed upon bullocks. He said there were many Jews at Tombuctoo; but they all spoke Arabic, and used the same prayers as the Moors."

The city of Tombuctoo is placed by major Rennell, from a comparison of all the accounts received of it, in north latitude $16^{\circ} 30'$; east longitude $1^{\circ} 33'$.

According to the report of Mr. Park the interior parts of Africa are inhabited by three distinct races of men; the Mandingoes, or proper negroes; the Foulahs, or white Ethiopians of Ptolemy and Pliny, who have neither the crisped hair, nor jetty blackness of the Mandingoes; and the Moors, natives of Arabia, who in their persons and complexions exactly resemble the mulattoes of the West Indies, and who are bigotted Mahomedans, and of a disposition most perfidious and sanguinary. Of these three nations, though they are frequently intermixed, the negroes, whether Mandingoes or Foulahs, are generally found to the south of the Moors. The Negroes, for the most

part, cultivate the grounds : the Moors, like the Arabians, from whom they are descended, are roving shepherds, or travelling merchants, who seem, from the earliest times, to have overspread the great African desert and the Oases, or fertile islands thinly scattered through that sandy ocean. Hence they extended their arms southwards, and made themselves masters of several of the negro kingdoms on the Niger ; so that their dominions form a narrow belt running from west to east, on the skirts of the desert, from the coasts of the Atlantic to the mountains of Abyssinia.

We shall now give some account of the travels of Mr. Horneman, whom we have mentioned above, and who in like manner travelled under the directions and patronage of the African society.

On the 6th of September, 1798, Mr. Horneman set out from Cairo with the Fezzan caravan, for the purpose of making discoveries in the interior of Africa. The caravan proceeded by Umme-sogier, a small village containing but few inhabitants, to the Oases of Siwah, which is only twenty hours journey from Umme-sogier. At Siwah, Mr. Horneman saw the ruins which had before been discovered by Mr. Browne, whose observations he confirms. From Siwah the caravan proceeded by Augila, a town known to Herodotus, who places it at ten days journey from the city of the Ammonians, to Temissa, in the territory of Fezzan ; thence to Zuila, in the same territory ; and thence to Mourzook, the capital, where it arrived on the 17th of November.

The cultivated part of the kingdom of Fezzan, according to Mr. Horneman, is about 300 English miles in length from north to south, and 200 miles from east to west ; but the mountainous region of Harutsch, to the east, and other districts to the south and west, are reckoned within its territory. The borderers on the north are Arabs, dependent, though rather nominally than really, on Tripoli. To the east, the country is bounded by the mountains called the black and the white Haratsch, and by deserts. To the south and south-east is the country of the Tibboes ; to the south-west that of the wandering Tuaricks ; and to the west are Arabs. The climate is at no season temperate or agreeable. During the summer the heat is intense ; and when the wind blows from the south is scarcely supportable even by the natives. The winter would be moderate were it not that a bleak and penetrating north wind frequently prevails. It rains but seldom, and then but little in quantity ; but violent winds are frequent. Dates may be considered as the natural and staple produce of the country ; some senna is likewise grown in the western parts, and the climate and soil suit wheat and barley ; but from the indolence of the people, their unacquaintance with the arts of agriculture, and the oppressions of the government, there is not sufficient corn grown for the consumption of the inhabitants, who rely for subsistence on importations from the Arab countries to the north. There are but few horses or cattle in Fezzan ; the principal domestic animal is the goat. Camels are extremely dear, and only kept by the principal persons, and more wealthy merchants.

The population of the country is estimated by Mr Horneman at 70 or 75,000 souls. He says it contains a hundred and one towns and villages, the names of the principal of which next in order to Mourzook, the capital, and imperial residence, are Sockna, Sibba, Hun, and Wadon, to the north ; Gatron to the south ; Yerma to the west ; and Zuila to the east.

The complexion of the Fezzaners is a deep brown; their hair is black and short; their form of face such as may be termed regular, and their nose less flattened than that of the negro. They are but of an ordinary stature, and their limbs are by no means muscular. Their mien, walk, and every motion and gesture denote a want of energy either of mind or body. Their dress consists of a shirt or frock, made of a coarse linen or cotton cloth brought from Cairo, and coarse woollen cloth of their own manufacture, called *abbe*. The middling classes wear frocks made at Soudan of dyed blue cloth. The richer people and the Mamelukes of the sultan are clothed in the Tripolitan habit; over which they wear a soudan shirt of variegated pattern and colours, and likewise the *abbe*. The ornamental distinctions of dress are chiefly confined to the head-dress, and to rings on the arms and legs. The women of distinction divide their hair into curls or tresses, to which they fix pieces of coral and amber, and little silver bells. They also fasten to the top of the head silver cords on which are strung a number of silver rings, which hang on each side pendent to the shoulder. The meaner women wear merely a string of glass beads, and curl their hair above the forehead into large ringlets, into which severally is stuffed a paste made of lavender, caraway seeds, cloves, pepper, mastich, and laurel leaves, mixed up with oil. The women of Fezzan generally have a great fondness for dancing, and the wanton manners and public freedoms which, although Mahommedans, they are permitted, astonishes the Mahommedan traveller. The men are much addicted to drunkenness. Their beverage is the fresh juice of the date-tree called *lugibi*, or a drink called *busa*, which is prepared from dates, and is very intoxicating.

The commerce of Fezzan is considerable, but consists merely of foreign merchandise. From October to February, Mourzook is the great market and place of resort for various caravans from Cairo, Tripoli, Soudan, and companies of Tibboe and Arab traders. The caravans from the south and west bring to Mourzook slaves of both sexes, ostrich feathers, tiger skins, and gold, partly in dust, and partly in native grains, to be manufactured into rings and other ornaments for the people of interior Africa. From Bornou copper is imported in great quantities; from Cairo silks and woollen cloth; and from Tripoli fire-arms, sabres, knives, &c.

Fezzan is governed by a sultan descended from the family of the shereefs. His power over his own dominions is unlimited, but he holds them tributary to the pasha of Tripoli. The tribute was formerly 6000 dollars, but it is now reduced to 4000; and an officer from Tripoli comes annually to Mourzook, to receive this sum, or its value in gold, senna, or slaves. The throne is hereditary; but the crown does not in all cases, descend directly from father to son; the eldest prince of the royal family succeeds, perhaps a nephew in preference to a son who is younger. This custom frequently occasions contest and bloodshed. The sultan's palace or house is situate within the castle or fortress of Mourzook, where he lives retired with no other inmate but the eunuchs who wait on him. His haram consisting of a sultana and about forty slaves, is contiguous; he never enters it; but the female whom he at any time wishes to see is conducted to his apartment. The apparel of the sultan on days of state and ceremony consists of a large white frock or shirt, made in the Soudan manner, of stuff, and brocaded with silver and gold, or of satin, interwoven with

silver. Under this frock he wears the ordinary dress of the Tripolitans; but the most remarkable appearance is that of his turban, which from the fore to the hinder part extends a full yard, and is not less than two-thirds of a yard in breadth. The revenues of the sultan are produced from a tax on cultivated lands, duties on foreign trade paid by the caravans, from royal domains, and predatory expeditions.

The religion of the Fezzaners is the Mahommedan. Justice is administered, as in other Mahommedan countries, by an officer called a *cadi*, who is here, at the same time, the head of the clergy, and possesses great influence and authority with the people.

The name or title of the present sultan of Fezzan is, "Sultan Muhammed ben Sultan Mansur;" but when he writes to the pasha of Tripoli, he only stiles himself *shereef*.

Mr. Horneman has since renewed his travels in the same track, and a letter dated Mourzook, April 6th, 1800, has been received from him by the society. He was then preparing to set out with the caravan for Bornou, whence he proposed to proceed to Cashna, and penetrate, if possible, to Tombuctoo. From the abilities and diligence of this enterprising traveller, should no adverse accident occur to him, much curious and useful information may be expected.

We shall here add a short account of the country of Dar-Fûr, another kingdom of the interior of Africa lately visited by Mr. Browne. "Dar-Fûr, or the country of Fur, is situated to the south of Egypt and Nubia, and to the west of Abyssinia. Cobbé, its capital, stands, according to Mr. Browne, in north latitude $14^{\circ} 11'$; east longitude, $28^{\circ} 8'$. In Dar-Fûr wood is found in great quantity, except where the rocky nature of the soil absolutely impedes vegetation; nor are the natives assiduous completely to clear ground, even where it is designed for the cultivation of grain. The perennial rains, which fall here from the middle of June till the middle of September in greater or less quantity, but generally both frequent and violent, suddenly invest the face of the country, till then dry and sterile, with a delightful verdure. The tame animals in Dar-Fûr are camels, horses, sheep, oxen, and dogs; the wild ones, lions, leopards, hyænas, wolves, jackals, and elephants, which, in the places they frequent, go, according to report, in large herds of four or five hundred; it is even said that two thousand are sometimes found together. The antelope and ostrich are also extremely common. The population of the country Mr. Browne estimates at 200,000 souls: Cobbé, the capital, he thinks does not contain more than 6000 inhabitants. This town is more than two miles in length, but very narrow; and the houses, each of which occupies within its inclosure a large portion of ground, are divided by considerable waste. The walls of the houses are of clay, and the people of higher rank cover them with a kind of plaster, and colour them white, red, and black. The disposition of the people of Dar-Fûr is more cheerful than that of the Egyptians. Dancing is practised by the men as well as the women, and they often dance promiscuously. But the vices of thieving, lying, and cheating in bargains, are here almost universal. No property, whether considerable or trifling, is safe out of the sight of the owner. Their religion is the Mahommedan, but they allow polygamy without limitation; and they are little addicted to jealousy. To the women are assigned the most laborious employments: they till the ground, gather in the corn, make the bread, and even build the houses. The government is despotic;

though the monarch can do nothing contrary to the Koran. He speaks of the soil and productions as his personal property, and of the people as his slaves. His revenues arise from the tenth of all merchandise imported; the tribute of the Arabs who breed oxen, horses, camels, and sheep; and some other duties: the sultan is besides the chief merchant in the country, and dispatches with every caravan to Egypt a great quantity of his own merchandise. The name of the present sultan is Abd-el-rachman. When Mr. Browne was in the country, he was admitted to a great public audience given by the sultan. He found him seated on the throne, under a lofty canopy, attended by his guards. The space in front was filled with suitors and spectators to the number of more than fifteen hundred. A kind of hired encomiast stood on the monarch's left hand, crying out, with all his strength, during the whole ceremony; 'See the buffaloe, the offspring of a buffaloe, a bull of bulls, the elephant of superior strength, the powerful sultan, Abd-el-rachman-el-rashid! May God prolong thy life! O master! may God assist thee and render thee victorious!' Abd-el-rachman usurped the throne from his nephew, whom he conquered in battle in the year 1787."

WESTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

ON the western coast of Africa, proceeding southwards from the empire of Morocco, we pass the country of Zahara, inhabited by Moorish and Arab tribes, called the Monselemines, Mongearts, Wadelims, and Trasarts, who extend nearly to the mouth of the river Senegal, where the French had a fort and factory, and were entire masters of the gum trade. It is called Fort Louis, was taken by the English in 1758, and confirmed to them by the peace of 1763; but in 1783, it was restored to France. Near Cape Verd is the island of Goree, considered as one of the safest, pleasantest, and most important settlements in all Africa. It was subject to France, but has been lately taken by the English. To the southward of Cape Verd, in latitude 8 deg. 12 min. north, and about 12 deg. lon. west, is the settlement of Sierra Leone, formed from the purest motives of humanity, under the patronage of a very respectable society of gentlemen in London, in the year 1791. The benevolent purposes for which it was intended are, to introduce the light of knowledge and the comforts of civilization into Africa, and to cement and perpetuate the most confidential union between the European colony and the natives of that country.

A settlement of a similar nature was formed upon the island of Bulam, on the same coast, to the eastward of the island of Bisgos. But this is now entirely relinquished. A great part of the colonists were massacred by the natives of the shore at the mouth of the river Gambia, who were accustomed to make annual plantations of rice in Bulam. The surviving colonists took refuge among their countrymen at Sierra Leone.

In the latter end of September 1794, a French squadron attacked this settlement, carried off or destroyed all the stores and whatever they could find belonging to the company, and burned all the public buildings and houses of the Europeans, and several likewise (as they said, by mistake) of those of the negroe colonists. The colony, however, has not been abandoned, but the directors have taken such measures as have repaired their losses, and will no doubt tend still more to increase the trade and cultivation of the settlement. The colonists are on the happiest terms of friendship with the natives, and make great progress in clearing and improving the lands allotted them.

The country or coast of Guinea (or Upper Guinea) extends from 12 deg. west lon. to 8 deg. east, nearly in the parallel of 6 deg. north lat. It comprehends the Grain Coast, the Tooth Coast, the Gold Coast, the Slave Coast (which includes Whidah and Ardrah, now subject to Dahomy) and Benin. The principal kingdom on these coasts is Dahomy, the monarch of which subdued and annexed to his dominions Whidah and Ardrah between the years 1724 and 1727. The country

of Dahomy, as known at present (according to the history of it by Mr. Dalze., governor of Cape Coast Castle) is supposed to reach from the sea-coast about 150 or 200 miles inland, though no European has penetrated above half that distance; the capital, Abomey, lies in about 8 deg. north lat. and 3 deg. 20 min. east lon. The soil is a deep clay of a reddish colour, with a little sand on the surface. In some places it is a little light and gravelly; but there is not a stone so big as an egg in the whole country, so far as it has been visited by the Europeans. It plentifully produces, according to the quantity of culture, maize and millet, or Guinea-corn of different sorts, a kind of beans, or rather kidney-beans, called calavances, and also a species of beans, called ground-beans. The Dahomans likewise cultivate yams, potatoes of two sorts, the cassada or manioka: the plantain and the banana, pine-apples, melons, oranges, limes, guavas, and other tropical fruits also abound in this fertile country. Nor is it destitute of productions adapted for commerce and manufactures; such as indigo, cotton, the sugar-cane, tobacco, palm-oil, together with a variety of spices, particularly a species of pepper very similar in flavour, and indeed scarcely distinguishable from the black pepper of the East Indies. Dahomy abounds with buffaloes, deer, sheep, goats, hogs both wild and domestic, poultry of various kinds, particularly pintadas, or Guinea-hens, and Muscovy-ducks. The elephant, though its flesh be coarse, is made use of as food by the natives; and dogs are reared for the same purpose. The dress of the men in Dahomy consists of a pair of striped or white cotton drawers of the manufacture of the country, over which they wear a large square cloth of the same, or of European manufacture. This cloth is about the size of a common counterpane for the middle class, but much larger for the grandees. It is wrapped about the loins, and tied on the left side by two of the corners, the other hanging down and sometimes trailing on the ground. A piece of silk or velvet of sixteen or eighteen yards makes a cloth for a grandee. The head is usually covered with a beaver or felt hat, according to the quality of the wearer. The king, as well as some of his ministers, often wears a gold and silver laced hat and feather. The arms and upper part of the body are usually naked: and the feet are always bare, none but the sovereign being permitted to wear sandals. The dress of the women, though simple, consists of a greater number of articles than that of the men. They use several cloths and handkerchiefs; some to wrap round the loins, and others to cover occasionally the breasts and upper part of the body. They adorn the neck, arms, and ancles with beads and cowries, and wear rings of silver or baser metals on their fingers: girls, before the age of puberty, wear nothing but a string of beads or bells round their loins, and young women usually expose the breasts to view. The general character of the Dahomans is marked by a mixture of ferocity and politeness. The former appears in the treatment of their enemies: the latter they possess far above the African nations with whom we have hitherto had any intercourse; this being the country where strangers are least exposed to insults, and where it is easy to reside in security and tranquillity. The language is that which the Portuguese call *Lingua Geral*, or General Tongue, and is spoken not only in Dahomy Proper, but in Whidah, and the other dependent states; and likewise in Mahee, and several neighbouring places. With respect to the Dahoman religion, it consists of a jumble of superstitious ceremonies, of which it is impossible to convey any satisfactory idea. The govern-

ment is, perhaps, the most perfect despotism on the earth ; the policy of the country admits of no intermediate degree of subordination between king and slave, at least in the royal presence, where the prime minister is obliged to prostrate himself with as much abject submission as the meanest subject. A minister of state, on his entrance, crawls towards the apartment of audience on his hands and knees, till he arrives in the royal presence, where he lays himself flat on his belly, rubbing his head in the dust, and uttering the most humiliating expressions. Being desired to advance, he receives the king's commands, or communicates any particular business, still continuing prostrate ; for no person is permitted to sit, even on the floor, in the royal presence, except the women, and even they must kiss the ground when they receive or deliver the king's message. The king of Dahomy maintains a considerable standing army, commanded by an agaow or general, with several other subordinate military officers, who must hold themselves in readiness to take the field upon all occasions, at the command of the sovereign. The payment of these troops chiefly depends on the success of the expeditions in which they are engaged. On extraordinary occasions, all the males able to bear arms are obliged to repair to the general's standard ; every caboceer, or grandee, marching at the head of his own people. Sometimes the king takes the field at the head of his troops ; and, on very great emergencies, at the head of his women. Within the walls of the different royal palaces in Dahomy are immured not less than three thousand women, several hundreds of whom are trained to arms under a female general, and subordinate officers appointed by the king, in the same manner as those under the agaow. These warriors are regularly exercised, and go through their evolutions with as much expertness as the male soldiers. They have their large umbrellas, their flags, their drums, trumpets, flutes, and other musical instruments. The singularity of this institution never fails to attract particularly the attention of Europeans, when among other uncommon exhibitions they are presented with the unusual spectacle of a review of female troops.

Benin is a country to the east of Dahomy, and extending from about 9 deg. north latitude to 1 deg. south. The climate is said to be extremely unwholesome and noxious. The animals are elephants, tigers, leopards, apes and ostriches, and in the rivers are a great number of crocodiles. The dress of the natives is neat and ornamental. The rich wear white calico or cotton petticoats, but the upper part of the body is commonly naked. The women use great art in dressing their hair, which they adjust in a variety of forms. Polygamy is common, and the king is said to have six hundred wives. Though jealous of each other, they are not so of Europeans, as they think it impossible that the taste of the women can be so depraved as to grant any liberties to a white man. Their religion is paganism. The king exercises an absolute authority : three great officers, distinguished by a string of coral, continually attend upon him to consult, instruct, and decide in his name. He can bring into the field an army of 100,000 men. Benin, the capital, situated on the river Benin or Formosa, was formerly a very closely built and populous city. In the streets, which are long and broad, are many shops filled with European merchandise, as well as with the commodities of the country. A principal part of the town is occupied by the royal palace, which is of vast extent, but neither elegant nor commodious.

To the south of Benin is the country of Loango, which is about

250 miles in length, and 180 in breadth. The climate of this kingdom is nearly as hot as any under the torrid zone, and much hotter than those of Congo and Angola. Loango was formerly subject to, and made a part of, the kingdom of Congo.

Congo (or Lower Guinea) is the name frequently given to the whole tract of country on the coast from the equator to 18 degrees of south latitude, including the kingdoms of Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela; but Congo Proper is only 150 miles broad along the coast, though it extends, it is said, 370 inland. It is bounded on the north by Loango, on the south by Angola, and on the east by an unknown country, the name of which is said to be Metamba. The climate is extremely hot in summer; but the winters are as mild as the finest springs of Italy. The animals it produces are elephants of a monstrous size, lions, leopards, tigers, wolves, zebras, buffaloes, &c. The country is likewise infested with a vast variety of serpents, some of them of a monstrous length and thickness; rattle snakes, vipers, scorpions, and venomous insects of various kinds, both flying and reptile; the most pernicious and dangerous of which is the ant or pismire, which will not only destroy the fruits of the earth, but in the night surround even beasts and men in prodigious swarms, and devour them in a few hours, leaving only the bones. The character, manners, religion, and government of the natives of Congo, nearly resemble those of the negroe kingdoms on this coast. The Portuguese have several settlements in this country.

To the south of Congo is the country of Angola, which is said to be divided among a number of petty princes. The Portuguese have several settlements on the coast; but the English and Dutch traffic with the natives, and purchase a great number of slaves.

Between Angola and the country of the Hottentots are the countries of Benguela and Mataman; but these are very little known to Europeans, and the latter is almost entirely desert.

COLONY OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

THIS territory is the Dutch settlement at the most southern extremity of Africa, extending about 550 miles in length, from west to east, and 315 in breadth from south to north. It lies between 30 and 34 and a half degrees of south latitude, and 18 and 28 of east longitude, and is divided into four districts: the Cape district; that of Stelienbosch and Drakensteen; that of Zwellendam, and that of Graaf Reynet.

“Of this extensive territory,” says Mr. Barrow,* “a very great portion may be considered as an unprofitable waste, unfit for any sort of culture, or even to be employed as pasture for the support of cattle. Level plains, consisting of a hard impenetrable surface of clay, thinly sprinkled over with crystalised sand, condemned to perpetual drought, and producing only a few straggling tufts of acrid, saline, and succulent plants, and chains of vast mountains that are either totally naked, or clothed in parts with sour grasses only, or such plants as are noxious to animal life, compose at least one half of the colony of the Cape. Two of these chains of mountains, called the *Zwarte Berg*, or Black Mountain, and the *Neuveldt Gebergte*, inclose together the great Karro, or dry desert, extending nearly 300 miles in length and 80 in breadth, and uninhabited by any human creature. Behind the town called Cape-town, are the mountains called the Table Mountain, the Devil’s Mountain, the Lion’s Head, and the Lion’s Back. The Table Mountain is a stupendous mass of naked rock, the north front of which, directly facing the town, is a horizontal line, or very nearly so, about two miles in length. The bold face that rises almost at right angles to meet this line has the appearance of the ruined walls of some gigantic fortress; and these walls rise above the level of Table Bay to the height of 3582 feet. The Devil’s Mountain on the one side, and the Lion’s Head on the other, make, in fact, with the Table, but one mountain: the height of the former is 3315, and that of the latter 2160 feet. The Devil’s Mountain is broken into irregular points, but the upper part of the Lion’s Head is a solid mass of stone, rounded and fashioned like a work of art, and resembling very much, from some points of view, the dome of St. Paul’s placed upon a high cone-shaped hill. From these mountains descend several rivulets which fall into Table Bay, and False Bay; but the principal rivers of the colony are the Berg or Mountain river, the Breede or Broad river, called also the Orange river, which has its periodical inundations like the Nile, and its cataracts; the Sunday river, and the Great Fish river, which is the boundary of the colony to the east.

The climate of the Cape appears to be in general free from the extremes of either heat or cold, and not in reality unhealthy. It has been usual with the Dutch to consider the year as consisting of two

* Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa, in 1797 and 1798.

periods, called the good and bad monsoon; but "as these," Mr. Barrow observes, "are neither regular in their returns, nor certain in their continuance, the division into four seasons, as in Europe, appears to be more proper. The spring, reckoned from the beginning of September to that of December, is the most agreeable season; the summer, from December to March, is the hottest; the autumn, from March to June, is variable weather, generally fine, and the latter part very pleasant; the winter, from June to September, though in general pleasant, is frequently very stormy, rainy, and cold. The two most powerful winds are the north-east, and south-west; the first generally commences towards the end of May, and blows occasionally till the end of August, and sometimes through the month of September. The south-east predominates the rest of the year, and when the cloud shows itself on the mountain, sometimes blows in squalls with great violence." The kind of corn generally cultivated in this country is wheat, which richly repays the labour of the husbandman. Barley and rye are likewise grown, the former of which is preferred to oats for feeding horses. "The natural productions of the Cape," says Mr. Barrow "are perhaps more numerous, varied, and elegant, than on any other spot of equal extent in the whole world. Few countries can boast of so great a variety of bulbous-rooted plants as Southern Africa. Most of the European, and several of the tropical fruits have been introduced into the colony, and cultivated with success. In every month of the year the table may be furnished with at least ten different sorts of fruit, green and dry. The market is likewise tolerably well supplied with the most of the European vegetables for the table, from the farms that lie scattered about the eastern side of the colony, in number about forty or fifty. On some of these farms are vineyards also of considerable extent, producing, besides the supply of the market with green and ripe grapes, and prepared raisins, about seven hundred leaguers or pipes of wine a year, each containing 154 gallons. Of these, from fifty to a hundred consist of a sweet luscious wine, well known in England by the name of Constantia, the produce of two farms lying close under the mountains, about mid-way between the two bays. The grape is the muscatel, and the rich quality of the wine is in part owing to the situation and soil, and partly to the care taken in the manufacture. No fruit but such as is full ripe, no stalks are suffered to go under the press: precautions seldom taken by the other farmers of the Cape."

The principal wild animals to be met with near the Cape, are wolves, hyænas, and various kinds of antelopes, among which are those called by the Dutch the spring boke, the gemsboke, and the greisboke, the former of which is remarkable for its agility, whence it derives its name: according to the accounts of the peasants, they sometimes go in herds to the amount of ten thousand in number. More inland are lions, tigers, buffaloes, elephants, and in the rivers hippopotami, called by the Dutch sea-cows. The horses of the Cape are not indigenous, but were first introduced from Java, and since that at different times, from various parts of the world. The heavy draught work of the colony is chiefly performed by oxen. The Cape ox is distinguished by his long legs, high shoulders, and large horns. The larger kinds of birds, which hover round the summit of the Table Mountain, are eagles, vultures, kites, and crows. Mr. Barrow wounded a condor, whose wings extended ten feet and an inch.

The general character of the Dutch at the Cape is a phlegmatic

dullness, and an eager desire of gain. The minds of every class seem to be wholly bent on trade, yet none are opulent, though many are in easy circumstances. There are no beggars in the whole colony, and but a few who are the objects of public charity. The ladies of the Cape, it has been remarked by most travellers, are pretty, lively, and good-humoured; possessing little of that phlegmatic temper which so distinguishes the other sex. They are expert at the needle, at all kinds of lace knotting and tambour work; and in general make up their own dresses, following the prevailing fashions of England, brought from time to time by the female passengers bound to India. The Dutch planters or farmers farther up the country, are remarkable for their indolence and sensuality, and too many of them for their moroseness, and the severity and cruelty with which they treat the Hottentots, their slaves. They, however, possess one virtue, that of hospitality to strangers, in an eminent degree, and in general are, or affect to be, very religious.

Cape-town, the capital of this colony, and indeed the only assemblage of houses which deserves the name of a town, is pleasantly situated at the head of Table Bay, on a sloping plain that rises with an easy ascent to the feet of the Devil's Hill, the Table Mountain, and the Lion's Head before mentioned. The town, consisting of about 1100 houses, built with regularity, and kept in neat order, is disposed into straight and parallel streets, intersecting each other at right angles. Many of the streets are open and airy, with canals of water running through them, walled in, and planted on each side with oaks; others are narrow and ill-paved. Three or four squares give an openness to the town. In one is held the public market; another is the common resort of the peasantry with their waggons; and a third, near the shore of the bay, and between the town and the castle, serves as a parade for exercising the troops. The barracks originally intended for an hospital, for corn magazines, and wine cellars, is a large, well designed, regular building, which, with its two wings, occupies part of one of the sides of the great square. The upper part of this building is sufficiently spacious to contain 4000 men. The castle affords barracks for 1000 men, and lodgings for all the officers of one regiment; magazines for artillery, stores and ammunition; and most of the public officers of government are within its walls. The other public buildings are a Calvinist and a Lutheran church; a guard-house, in which the burgher-senate, or the council of burghers, meet for transacting business relative to the interior police of the town; a large building in which the government slaves, to the number of 330, are lodged; and the court of justice, where civil and criminal causes are heard and determined. The population of the town is estimated at about 6000 whites, inclusive of the military, and 12,000 slaves: that of the whole colony, exclusive of the town, is estimated at only 15,000 whites. Between the town and Table Mountain are scattered over the plain a number of neat houses surrounded by plantations and gardens. Of these the largest and nearest to town, is that in which the government-house is erected. It is in length near 1000 yards, and contains about 40 acres of rich land, divided into almost as many squares by oak hedges.*

The government of the Cape is administered by a Dutch governor and lieutenant-governor, assisted by a council. Over each of the four

districts there is a civil magistrate, called the landrost, who with six hemraaden, or a council of country burghers, is vested with powers to regulate the police of his district, superintend the affairs of government, adjust litigations, and determine petty causes. Their decisions, however, are subject to an appeal to the court of justice in Cape-town, in which the basis of the proceedings is the Roman or civil law.

The southern extremity of Africa was discovered by the Portuguese navigator Bartholomew Diaz, in 1493, who gave it the name of Cabo Tormentoso, or the cape of storms, from the boisterous weather which he met with near it; but Emanuel, king of Portugal, on the return of Diaz, changed its name to that of the Cape of Good Hope, from the hope he entertained of finding beyond it a passage to India. This hope was fulfilled by Vasco de Gama, who, having doubled this cape on the 20th of November, 1497, proceeded to India, and landed at Calicut on the 22d of May, 1498. The Portuguese, however, made no settlement in this part of Africa, nearer to the Cape, than the banks of the Rio Infante, now the Great Fish-river which is 600 miles distant from it. In 1600 the Dutch first visited it, but for many years only touched at it in their voyages to and from the East Indies, to supply themselves with water and fresh provisions. At length, in 1650, a surgeon of one of their India ships, named Van Riebek, pointed out to the directors of the Dutch East India company the great advantages which would be derived from establishing a settlement at this place. The company adopted his plan, and sent out four ships under his command to commence the settlement he had advised. With some presents of brass, toys, beads, tobacco, and brandy, he purchased of the natives permission to build a fort and form a settlement in their country; and from that time the Cape remained in the undisturbed possession of the Dutch, during the space of nearly 150 years, till it surrendered by capitulation to the British arms, under general Alured Clark, and admiral sir George Keith Elphinstone, on the 16th of September, 1795. It was restored to the Dutch by the treaty of Amiens, but again taken by the English, after the renewal of hostilities, and still remains in their possession.

COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

THE country of the Hottentots is a large region in the southern extremity of Africa, extending north by west from the Cape of Good Hope, beyond the mouth of Orange-river, and from the Cape in an east-north-east direction to the mouth of the great Fish-river.

The Hottentots of the colony of Cape, formerly the possessors of the country, are now almost to a man the slaves of the Dutch. "This weak people," says Mr. Barrow, "the most helpless, and in their present condition, perhaps the most wretched of the human race, duped out of their possessions, their country, and finally out of their liberty, have entailed upon their miserable offspring a state of existence to which that of slavery might bear the comparison of happiness. It is a condition, however, not likely to continue to a very remote posterity. The name of Hottentot will be forgotten, or remembered only as that of a deceased person of little note. Their numbers of late years have rapidly declined." There are still, however, several tribes to which the general name of Hottentot* is given, as the Namaquas, the Bosjesmens, and the Gonaquas, who still preserve their independence. The former vary but little in their persons and dress from the Hottentots of the Cape and the Gonaquas, though their language is widely different. The Bosjesmens, or men of the bushes, so called from their lying in ambush in their predatory expeditions against the farmers of the colony, "are," says Mr. Barrow, "an extraordinary race of people. In their persons they are extremely diminutive: the tallest of the men measured only four feet nine inches, and the tallest women only four feet four inches. One of these, who had several children, measured only three feet nine inches. Their colour, their hair, and the general turn of their features, evidently denote a common origin with the other tribes of Hottentots, though the latter, in point of personal appearance, have greatly the advantage. The Bosjesmen indeed are amongst the ugliest of all human beings. The flat nose, high cheek-bones, prominent chin, and concave visage, partake much of the apeish character, which their keen eye, always in motion, tends not to diminish. Their bellies are uncommonly protuberant, and their backs hollow; but their limbs seem to be in general well turned and well proportioned. Their activity is incredibly great. The klip-springing antelope can scarcely excel them in leaping from rock to rock, and they are said to be so swift that on rough ground, or up the sides of mountains, horsemen have no chance with them. The Bosjesmen, however, though in every respect a Hottentot, yet in his turn of mind differs very widely from those who live in the colony. In his disposition he is lively and cheerful, and in his person active. His talents are far above mediocrity; and averse to idleness, he is seldom without employment. Confined generally

* This name, according to Mr. Barrow, is unknown to the Hottentots, except as they have received it from the Dutch, and has no place nor meaning in their language. The general name which they bear among themselves, in every part of the country, is Quaiquaz.

to their hovels by day, for fear of being surprised and taken by the farmers, they sometimes dance on moon-light nights from the setting to the rising of the sun. This cheerfulness is the more extraordinary as the morsel they procure to support existence is earned with danger and fatigue. The Bosjesmen neither cultivate the ground nor breed cattle, and their country yields few natural productions that serve for food. The bulbs of the iris, a few roots of a bitter and pungent taste, and the larvæ of ants and locusts are all it furnishes; and when these fail they are driven to the necessity of hazarding a toilsome and dangerous expedition into the colony.

Of the Gonaquas, and Hottentots in general, we shall give an account from M. Vaillant, a late French traveller :....“ During the thirty-six hours which I spent (says M. Vaillant) with the Gonaquas Hottentots, I had time to make several observations concerning them. I remarked that they made a clapping noise with their tongue, like the rest of the Hottentots. When they accost any one, they stretch forth the hand, saying *Tabe !* I salute you. This word and ceremony, which are employed by the Caffres, or Kaffers, are not used by the Hottentots properly so called.

“ This affinity of customs, manners, and even confirmation; their being so near great Caffraria, and the accounts I afterwards received, convinced me that these hordes of Gonaquas, who equally resemble the Caffres and the Hottentots, must be a mixed breed produced by these two nations. The dress of the men, arranged with more symmetry, has the same shape as that of the Hottentots; but as the Gonaquas are a little taller, they make their mantles of calves instead of sheeps skins; they are both called *kross*. Several of them wear, hanging from their necks, a bit of ivory, or very white sheep bone; and this contrast of the two colours produces a good effect, and is very becoming.

“ When the weather is excessively hot, the men lay aside every part of their dress that is superfluous, and retain only what they name their jackals. This is a piece of skin of the animal so called, with which they cover what nature bids them conceal, and which is fastened to their girdle. This veil, however, negligently arranged, may be considered as an useless appendage, and is of very little service to their modesty. The women, much fonder of dress than the men, employ more care in adorning their persons. They wear a *kross* like the latter, but the apron which conceals their sex is larger than that of the Hottentots. During the great heats they retain only this apron, with a skin which descends behind from their girdle to the calf of the leg; young girls below the age of nine years go perfectly naked; when they attain to that age they wear nothing but a small apron.

“ Whatever may be the extent of the deserts of Africa, we must not form any calculation respecting its population from those innumerable swarms of blacks which are found on the west, and which border all the coasts of the ocean from the Canary Isles to the environs of the Cape of Good Hope. There is certainly no proportion to enable us to hazard even a conjecture; since by a trade approved by a few, and held in detestation by the greater number, the barbarous navigators of Europe have induced these negroes, by the most villanous attractions, to give up their prisoners, or those who are inferior to them in strength. As their wants increased, they have become inhuman and perfidious beings: the prince has sold his subjects; the mother has sold her son; and nature, as an accomplice, has rendered her prolific.

“This disgusting and execrable traffic is, however, still unknown in the interior parts of the continent. The desert is really a desert; and it is only at certain distances that we meet with a few hordes, that are not numerous, and who live on the fruits of the earth, and the produce of their cattle. After finding one horde, we must travel a great way to find another. The heat of the climate, the dryness of the sands, the barrenness of the earth, a scarcity of water, rugged and rocky mountains, ferocious animals; and, besides these the humour of the Hottentots, a little phlegmatic, and their cold temperament, are all obstacles to propagation. When a father has six children, it is accounted a phænomenon.

“The country of the Gonaquas, into which I penetrated, did not therefore contain three thousand people in an extent of thirty or forty leagues. These people did not resemble those degenerated and miserable Hottentots, who pine in the heart of the Dutch colonies, contemptible and despised inhabitants, who bear no marks of their ancient origin but an empty name; and who enjoy, at the expence of their liberty, only a little peace, purchased at a dear rate, by the excessive labour to which they are subjected on the plantations, and by the despotism of their chiefs, who are always sold to government. I had here an opportunity of admiring a free and brave people, valuing nothing but independence, and never obeying any impulse foreign to nature.

“Their huts, constructed like those of the Hottentots in the colonies, were eight or nine feet in diameter, and were covered with ox or sheep skins, but more commonly with mats. They had only one opening very narrow and low; and it was in the middle of their hut that the family kindled their fire. The thick smoke with which these kennels were filled, and which had no other vent but the door, added to the stench which they always retain, would have stifled any European who might have had the courage to remain in them two minutes: custom, however, renders all this supportable to these savages.

“The two colours for which they show the greatest fondness are red and black. The first is composed of a kind of ochery earth, which is found in several places of the country, and which they mix and dilute with grease; this earth has a great resemblance to brick-dust, or tiles reduced to powder. Their black is nothing else than soot, or the charcoal of tender wood. Some women, indeed, are contented with painting only the prominence of the cheeks; but in general they daub over their whole body, in compartments, varied with a certain degree of symmetry: and this part of their dress requires no small length of time. These two colours, so much admired by the Hottentots, are always perfumed with the powder of the boughou, which is not very agreeable to the smell of an European. A Hottentot would, perhaps, find our odours and essences no less insupportable: but the boughou has over our rouge and pastes the advantage of not being pernicious to the skin, of not attacking and injuring the lungs; and the female Hottentot, who is acquainted with neither amber, musk, nor benzoin, never knows what it is to be oppressed by vapours, spasms, and the head-ache. The men never paint their faces, but they use a preparation made of both colours mixed to paint the upper lip as far as the nostrils; by which they enjoy the advantage of continually inhaling the odour of the substance employed for this purpose. Young girls sometimes favour their lovers so far as to apply this paint for them under the nose; and on this point they

show a kind of coquetry, which has a very powerful influence over the heart of a Hottentot novice. The reader, however, must not infer that the Hottentot women pay so much attention to dress as to neglect those daily and useful occupations, to which nature and their usages call them. Separated from Europe by an immensity of sea, and from the Dutch colonies by desert mountains and impassable rocks, too much communication with these people has not yet led them to the excesses of our depravation. On the contrary, when they have the happiness of becoming mothers, nature addresses them in a different language; they assume, more than in any other country, a spirit suitable to their state, and readily give themselves up to those cares which she imperiously requires of them.

“They are remarkably fond of hunting, and in this exercise they display great dexterity. Besides gins and snares which they place at convenient spots to catch large animals, they lie in wait for them also, attack them as soon as they appear, and kill them with their poisoned arrows, or their assaygays, which are a kind of lances. On the first view of their arrows, one would not suspect how destructive weapons they are: their smallness renders them so much the more dangerous, as it is impossible to perceive and follow them with the eye, and consequently to avoid them. The slightest wound which they make always proves mortal, if the poison reaches the blood, and if the flesh be torn. The surest remedy is to amputate the wounded part, if it be a limb; but if the wound be in the body death is unavoidable. The assaygay is generally a very feeble weapon in the hands of a Hottentot; but, besides this, its length renders it not dangerous, for, as it may be seen cleaving the air, it is not difficult to avoid it.

“The Hottentots have not the least notion of the elements of agriculture; they neither sow nor plant, nor do they even reap any crop. When they choose to give themselves the trouble, they make an intoxicating liquor composed of honey and a certain root, which they suffer to ferment in a sufficient quantity of water. This liquor, which is a kind of hydromel, is not their usual beverage, nor do they ever keep a stock of it by them. Whatever they have, they drink all at once, and frequently regale themselves in this manner at certain periods. They smoke the leaves of a plant which they name dagha, and not daka, as some authors have written. This plant is not indigenous: it is the hemp of Europe. There are some of the savages who prefer these leaves to tobacco; but the greatest part of them are fond of mixing both together. They set less value on the pipes brought from Europe, than on those which they fabricate themselves; the former appear to them to be too small.

“Though they rear abundance of sheep and oxen, they seldom kill the latter, unless some accident happens to them, or old age has rendered them unfit for service. Their principal nourishment, therefore, is the milk of their ewes and cows, besides which they have the produce of their hunting excursions, and from time to time they kill a sheep. To fatten their animals, they employ a process, which, though not practised in Europe, is no less efficacious, and has this peculiar advantage, that it requires no care. They bruise, between two flat stones, those parts which we deprive them of by the knife; and when thus compressed, they acquire in time a prodigious bulk, and become a most delicate morsel when they have resolved to sacrifice the animal.

“Those oxen which they intend for carrying burdens must be broke and trained very early to the service, otherwise they would become absolutely untractable. On this account, when the animal is still young, they pierce the cartilage which separates the nostrils, and thrust through the hole a piece of stick about eight or ten inches in length, and almost an inch in diameter. The task of milking the cows and the ewes belongs to the women: and, as they never beat or torment them, they are surprisingly tractable.

“Of their sheep and kine each village has one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdsman. This charge requires many precautions very different from those which are taken by our herdsmen, beasts of prey being much more numerous and fierce in the southern parts of Africa than in Europe. Lions, indeed, are not very common; but there are elephants, rhinoceroses, leopards, tigers, hyænas, and several kinds of wolves more destructive than ours, together with many other furious animals that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions towards the Cape, and destroy the tame cattle. To prevent these misfortunes, it is the business of the herdsman to go or send every day round his district, in order to discover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter: in which case he assembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the stoutest among them arm themselves with javelins and poisoned arrows, and follow the person who may have discovered the beast, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines; the herdsman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beast to follow him out, when he is inevitably destroyed.

“These savages measure the year by the seasons of drought and rainy weather. This division is common to all the inhabitants of the tropical regions, and it is sub-divided into moons; but they never count the days if they exceed ten, that is to say, the number of their fingers. Beyond that, they mark the day or the time by some remarkable occurrence: for example, an extraordinary storm, an elephant killed, an infectious disorder among the cattle, an emigration, &c. The different parts of the day they distinguish by the course of the sun: and they will tell you, pointing with their finger, He was there when I departed, and here when I arrived.

“A sense of delicacy induces the Hottentots to keep themselves separate from others when they are sick, they are then seldom seen, and it would appear that they are ashamed of having lost their health.

“When a Hottentot dies, he is buried in his worst kross, and the limbs are disposed in such a manner that the whole body is covered. The relations then carry it to a certain distance from the horde, and disposing it in a pit dug for this purpose, and which is never deep, cover it with earth, and then with stones, if any are to be found in the neighbourhood. Such a mausoleum proves but a very weak defence against the attacks of the jackal and the hyæna; the body indeed is soon dug up and devoured. However badly this last duty may be discharged, the Hottentots are not much to be blamed, when we call to mind the funeral ceremonies of the ancient and celebrated Persis, still attached to the custom of exposing their dead on the tops of high towers, or in open cemeteries, in order that the cows and the vultures may feed upon them and carry them away in morsels. The children, and, failing them, the nearest relations of the deceased, take possession of whatever is left; but the quality of a chief is not hereditary. He

is always appointed by the horde, and his power is limited. In their councils his advice prevails, if it be judged good; if not, no regard is paid to it. When they are about to go to war, they know neither rank nor divisions; each attacks or defends after his own manner; the most intrepid march in the van: and when victory declares itself, they do not bestow upon one man the honour of an action which has proved successful by the courage of all: it is the whole nation that triumphs.

“Of all the people whom I ever saw (observes our author) the Gonaquas are the only nation that can be considered as free; but they will perhaps be soon obliged to remove to a greater distance, or receive laws from the Dutch government. All the land to the east being in general good, the planters endeavour to extend their possessions in that quarter as much as they can, and their avarice doubtless will some day succeed. Misery must then be the portion of these happy and peaceable people; and every trace of their liberty will be destroyed by massacres and invasions. Thus have all those hordes mentioned by old authors been treated; and, by being often dismembered and weakened, they are now reduced to a state of absolute dependence on the Dutch. The existence of the Hottentots, their names, and their history, will therefore in time be accounted fabulous; unless some traveller, who may possess curiosity enough to induce him to discover their remains, should have the courage to penetrate into the remote deserts inhabited by the great Nimiquas, where rocks more and more hardened by time, and old and barren mountains, do not produce a single plant worthy to engage the attention of the speculative botanist.

“A physiognomist, or, if the reader pleases, a modern wit, would entertain his company by assigning to the Hottentot, in the scale of beings, a place between a man and the ourang-outang. I cannot, however, consent to this systematic arrangement; the qualities which I esteem in him will never suffer him to be degraded so far; and I have found his figure sufficiently beautiful, because I experienced the goodness of his heart. It must indeed be allowed, that there is something peculiar in his features, which in a certain degree separates him from the generality of mankind. His cheek-bones are exceedingly prominent; so that his face being very broad in that part, and the jaw-bones, on the contrary, extremely narrow, his visage continues still decreasing even to the point of the chin. This configuration gives him an air of lankness, which makes his head appear very much disproportioned, and too small for his full and plump body. His flat nose rises scarcely half an inch at its greatest elevation; and his nostrils, which are excessively wide, often exceed in height the ridge of his nose. His mouth is large, and furnished with small teeth well enamelled and perfectly white: his eyes, very beautiful and open, incline a little towards the nose, like those of the Chinese: and to the sight and touch his hair has the resemblance of wool; it is very short, curls naturally, and in colour is as black as ebony. He has very little hair, yet he employs no small care to pull out by the roots part of what he has; but the natural thinness of his eye-brows saves him from this trouble in that part. Though he has no beard but upon the upper lip, below the nose, and at the extremity of the chin, he never fails to pluck it out as soon as it appears. This gives him an effeminate look; which, joined to the natural mildness of his character, destroys that commanding fierceness usual among savages. The wo-

men, with more delicacy of features, exhibit the same characteristic marks in their figure: they are equally well made. Their breasts, admirably placed, have a most beautiful form while in the bloom of youth: and their hands are small, and their feet exceedingly well shaped, though they never wear sandals. The sound of their voice is soft; and their idiom, passing through the throat, is not destitute of harmony. When they speak, they employ a great many gestures, which give power and gracefulness to their arms."

The Hottentots are naturally timid; their phlegmatic coolness, and their serious looks, give them an air of reserve, which they never lay aside, even at the most joyful moments; while, on the contrary, all other black or tawny nations give themselves up to pleasure with the liveliest joy and without any restraint.

A profound indifference to the affairs of life inclines them very much to inactivity and indolence: the keeping of their flocks, and the care of procuring a subsistence, are the only objects that occupy their thoughts. They never follow hunting as sportsmen, but like people oppressed and tormented by hunger. In short, forgetting the past, and being under no uneasiness for the future, they are struck only with the present; and it is that which alone engages their attention.

They are however (observes M. Vaillant) the best, the kindest, and the most hospitable of people. Whoever travels among them may be sure of finding food and lodging; and though they will receive presents, yet they never ask for any thing. If the traveller has a long journey to accomplish, and if they learn from the information he requires that there are no hopes of his soon meeting with other hordes, that which he is going to quit supply him with provisions as far as their circumstances will allow, and with every thing else necessary for his continuing his journey, and reaching the place of his destination. Such are these people, or at least such did they appear to me, in all the innocence of manners and of a pastoral life. They excite the idea of mankind in a state of infancy.

This favourable character of the Hottentots in general is confirmed by Mr. Barrow, who says of them "Low as they are sunk in the scale of humanity, their character seems to have been much traduced and misrepresented. It is true there is nothing prepossessing in the appearance of a Hottentot, but infinitely less so in the many ridiculous and false relations by which the public have been abused. They are a mild, quiet and timid people; perfectly harmless, honest, faithful; and though extremely phlegmatic, they are kind and affectionate to each other, and not incapable of strong attachments. A Hottentot would share his last morsel with his companions. They have little of that kind of art or cunning that savages generally possess. If accused of crimes of which they have been guilty, they generally divulge the truth. They seldom quarrel among themselves, or make use of provoking language. Though naturally of a fearful and cowardly disposition, they will run into the face of danger, if led on by their superiors; and they suffer pain with great patience. They are by no means deficient in talent, but they possess little exertion to call it into action; the want of which has been the principal cause of their ruin."

CAFFRARIA.

THE country known by the general denomination of Caffraria is a very extensive region, bounded on the north by Negroland and Abyssinia; on the west by part of Guinea, Congo, and the sea; on the south by the Cape of Good Hope; and on the east by the sea. It is divided into several territories and kingdoms, of which little is known, and is computed to be 700 miles long, and 660 broad.

The men among the Caffres (or Kaffers) says lieutenant Paterson, are from five feet ten inches to six feet high, and well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking lions or any beasts of prey.

The colour of the Caffres is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The clothing of both sexes is nearly the same, consisting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs; pieces of brass in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms: they are also adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers fastened on their heads, with many other fantastical ornaments.

They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle; and to such a height do they carry this passion, that, if one particularly pleases them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it. Their whole exercise through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances; and in time of war use shields made of the hides of oxen.

The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate several vegetables, which are not indigenous to their country; such as tobacco, water-melons, a sort of kidney-beans, and hemp. The women also make baskets, and the mats which they sleep on. The men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in such a way as to be able to turn them into any shape they please; and they teach them to answer a whistle. When they wish their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the house, and blow this small instrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and so constructed as to be heard at a great distance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty.

The soil of this country is a blackish loamy ground, and so extremely fertile, that every vegetable substance, whether sown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance. There are great variations in the climate; but I had no thermometer to observe the degrees of heat. It seldom rains except in the summer season, when it is accompanied with thunder and lightning. The country, however, is extremely well supplied with water, not only from the high land towards the north, which furnishes abundance throughout the year, but from many fountains of excellent water, which are found in the woods. From what I observed in this country, I am induced to believe, that it is greatly superior to any other known part of Africa. The woods produce a variety of arbore-

ous plants, and some of a great size ; they are inhabited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. There were also varieties of beautiful birds and butterflies ; but they were so shy, that I was able only to preserve two birds of that country.

To judge of the Caffres by those I have seen, says M. Vaillant, they are taller than the Hottentots of the colonies, or even than the Gonaquas, though they greatly resemble the latter, but are more robust, and possess a greater degree of pride and courage. The features of the Caffres are likewise more agreeable, none of their faces contracting towards the bottom, nor do the cheek bones of these people project in the uncouth manner of the Hottentots ; neither have they large flat faces and thick lips like their neighbours, the negroes of Mosambique, but a well formed contour, an agreeable nose, with eyes sparkling and expressive : so that, setting aside our prejudice with regard to colour, there are many women among them who might be thought handsome by the side of an European lady. They do not disfigure themselves by daubing their eye-brows, like the Hottentots, but are very much tattooed, particularly about the face.

The hair of the Caffres, which is strong and curling, is never greased, but they anoint the rest of their bodies, with a view of making themselves active and strong. The men are more particular in decorations than the women, being very fond of beads and brass rings. They are seldom seen without bracelets on their legs and arms, made of the tusks of an elephant, which they saw to a convenient thickness, and then polish and round. As these rings cannot be opened, it is necessary to make them big enough to pass the hand through, so that they fall or rise according to the motion of the arm : sometimes they place small rings on the arms of their children, whose growth soon fills up the space, and fixes the ornament ; a circumstance which is particularly pleasing to them.

They likewise make necklaces of the bones of animals, which they polish and whiten in the most perfect manner. Some content themselves with the leg-bone of a sheep hanging on the breast. In the warm season the Caffres only wear their ornaments ; when the weather is cold they make use of krosses made of the skins of calves or oxen, which reach to the feet. One particularity which deserves attention, and does not exist elsewhere, is, that the Caffre women care little for ornaments. Indeed, they are well made, and pretty, when compared to other savages ; and never use the uncouth profusion of Hottentot coquetry, not even wearing copper bracelets. Their aprons, like those of the Gonaquas, are bordered with small rows of beads ; which is the only vanity they exhibit.

The skin that the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Caffre woman wears as high as her shoulders, tying it over the bosom, which it covers. They have, like the men, a kross, or cloak, of calf or ox skin, divested of the hair ; but it is only in the cold or rainy season that either sex wear it. These skins are as soft and pliant as the finest stuffs. Let the weather or season prove ever so bad, neither men nor women cover their heads. Sometimes, indeed, I have seen the head of a Caffre adorned with a feather stuck in the hair ; but this sight is by no means common.

One part of the daily occupation of the women is making earthenware, which they fashion as dexterously as their husbands ; they likewise make a curious kind of baskets, of a texture so compact as to con-

tain milk ; and they also prepare the fields for seed, scratching the earth, rather than digging of it, with wooden pick-axes.

The huts of the Caffres are higher and more commodious than those of the Hottentots : they form perfect hemispheres, and are composed of wooden work, very strong and compact, covered both within and without of a mixture of earth, clay, and cow-dung. The opening, or door-way is so low, that to enter the dwelling you must crawl on your hands and knees ; which makes it easier to defend themselves against animals, or the sudden attacks of an enemy. The hearth, or fire-place, is in the centre, surrounded by a circular rim which rises two or three inches.

The lands of Caffraria, either from their situation or the number of small rivers that refresh them, are more fertile than those of the Hottentots. The Caffres practise agriculture ; which proves they are not naturally wanderers.

I have remarked, continues M. Vaillant, that, notwithstanding the beautiful forests that adorn Caffraria, and delightful pastures which spring up and almost cover the animals which feed on them ; notwithstanding those rivers and streams which cross each other in a thousand different directions, to render them rich and fertile ; their oxen, their cows, and almost all their animals, are much smaller than those of the Hottentots : a difference which undoubtedly arises from the nature of the sap, and a certain flavour predominant in every kind of grass. I have made the observation both on domestic and wild animals, which never acquire the size of those bred in the dry barren countries I have passed through.

Industry is a leading trait in the character of the Caffres. Some arts, taught indeed by necessity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, distinguish them as a more civilized people than those towards the south.

Circumcision, which is generally practised among them, proves that they either owe their origin to an ancient people, or have simply imitated the inhabitants of some neighbouring country, of whom they have no longer any remembrance ; they do not use it (as they say) in any religious or mystical sense.

They acknowledge a Supreme Being, and believe in a future state, where the good will be rewarded, and the wicked punished ; but have no idea of the creation, thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in its present state. They have no sacred ceremonies. They instruct their own children, having no priests ; but, instead of them, a kind of sorcerers or conjurors, whom they greatly distinguish and revere.

The Caffres are governed by a chief or king, whose power is very limited, receiving no tax, having no troops at his command, but being the father of a free people ; neither attended nor feared, but respected and beloved, and frequently poorer than many of his subjects. Being permitted to take as many wives as he pleases, who think it an honour to belong to him, it is necessary that he should have a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed : these being his only resources for the maintenance of his numerous family, he is frequently in danger of being ruined. His cabin is neither higher nor better decorated than the rest ; his whole family and seraglio live round him, composing a group of a dozen or fifteen huts : the adjoining lands are generally of his own cultivation.

It is a custom among the Caffres, for each to gather his own grain,

which is their favourite nourishment, and which they grind or crush between two stones; for which reason, the families living separately, each surrounded by his own plantation of corn, occasions a small horde sometimes to occupy a league square of ground; a circumstance never seen among the Hottentots.

The distance of the different hordes makes it necessary that they should have chiefs, who are appointed by the king. When there is any thing to communicate, he sends for and gives them orders, or rather information, which the chiefs bear to their several hordes.

The principal weapon of the Caffre is the lance, or assaygay: which shows his disposition to be at once intrepid and noble, despising, as below his courage, the envenomed dart, so much in use among his neighbours; seeking his enemy face to face, and never throwing his lance but openly. In war he carries a shield, of about three feet in height, made of the thickest part of the hide of a buffaloe; this defends him from the arrow, or assaygay, but is not proof against a musket-ball. The Caffre also manages with great skill a club of about two feet and a half long, made of a solid piece of wood, three or four inches thick in the largest part, and gradually diminishing towards one of the ends. When in a close engagement, they strike with this weapon, or frequently throw it to the distance of fifteen or twenty paces; in which case it seldom fails of the intended effect.

The sovereignty here is hereditary, the eldest son always succeeding. In default of male heirs, it is not the king's brother that succeeds, but the eldest nephew; and in case the king should have neither children nor nephews, the chiefs of the different hordes elect a king. Upon these occasions a spirit of party sometimes prevails, which gives rise to factions and intrigues that generally end in bloodshed.

Polygamy is customary among the Caffres; their marriages are even more simple than those of the Hottentots, the parents of the bridegroom being always content with his choice; the friends of the bride are rather more difficult, but seldom refuse their consent; after which they rejoice, drink, and dance, for weeks together, according to the wealth of the families; but these feasts are never held but on the first espousals. They have no musical instruments, but such as are used by the Hottentots. As for their dances, the step is not unlike the English.

At the death of the father, the sons and the mother divide the property he has left between them. The daughters, claiming nothing, remain at home with their mother or brother, unless it pleases some man to take them; and if this circumstance takes place during the life of the parents, they receive cattle in proportion to the wealth of their father. The dead are seldom buried, but carried away from the kraal, by their family, and deposited in a deep trench, common to the whole horde on such occasions, where the wild beasts repair at leisure; which preserves the air from those noxious vapours which otherwise the putrefaction would occasion. The honours of burial are due only to the king or chief of a horde; they cover these bodies with piles of stones in the form of a dome.

EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

ON the Eastern coast of Africa, proceeding northwards from the Cape of Good Hope, we find the country of Sofala, where the Portuguese have a settlement of great importance for their trade to the East Indies, which is protected by a fort built on a small island near the mouth of a river. The natives of Sofala are for the most part black, with short, curled hair, there being but very few tawny or brown among them. Those on the coast speak the Arabic language, for they are not the original natives, but descendants of Arabs who settled on this coast. Sofala, according to the report of the Portuguese settlers, contains some gold mines of considerable value.

To the northward of Sofala is Monomotapa or Mocaranga, a country lying between the 15th and 20th degrees of south latitude. The climate is temperate, and the soil fertile in rice and sugar-canes, which last grow without cultivation. There are here vast herds of elephants, and great numbers of ostriches. This country possesses mines of gold and silver. The inhabitants are negroes. Like most of the other nations of Africa, they admit of unlimited polygamy; and the king is said to have above a thousand wives, most of them the daughters of petty chiefs. The army of the king consists only of foot, for there are no horses in the country. The Portuguese had a settlement here in 1560; but they were all murdered or forced away.

Beyond Mocaranga, still proceeding northward, stretches the extensive country of Zanguebar, containing the kingdoms of Mosambique, Melinda, and several others. Mosambique consists of three islands, on the west side of a channel of the same name. The principal, which is not more than three miles in length, and half as much in breadth, is about two miles from the continent. It was seized by the Portuguese in 1497, and they have kept possession of it ever since. The capital of this island, named likewise Mosambique, is large and well fortified, having a strong citadel to defend the harbour. The Portuguese generally keep a strong garrison here; and trade with the natives for gold, elephants' teeth, and slaves. They have built several churches and monasteries, and a large hospital for sick sailors. Their ships always call here in going to the East Indies, and the harbour is so commodious that whole fleets may anchor and provide themselves with all necessaries. Mosambique is situated in lat. 15 deg. 5 min. south, lon. 40 deg. 10 min. east.

The kingdom of Melinda produces gold, elephants' teeth, ostrich feathers, wax, aloes, senna, and other drugs; also plenty of rice, sugar, cocoa-nuts, and other tropical fruits. The natives are some of them black, and some tawny; the women are mostly of an olive complexion. Their dress, among the higher classes, is remarkably elegant; for they never appear abroad but in fine silks girt with rich gold or silver girdles, collars and bracelets of the same, or something

more valuable, and their heads covered with veils. The men wear a kind of turban; in other respects their dress consists of a piece of cotton wrapped about the middle, and descending a little below the knees; their legs, feet, and the rest of the body are quite bare. The meaner sort, and those who live farther from the coast, wear little else than a piece of cloth round the middle, if we except their shield and weapons, which are the bow and arrows, the scymetar and javelin. Their government is monarchical; and in such veneration is the king held by his subjects, that, whenever he stirs out from his palace, he is carried in a sedan on the shoulders of four or more of the greatest nobles of the kingdom; and incense and other perfumes are burned before him, as he goes through the streets of any city, by a great number of ladies, who sing songs in his praise, accompanied by various kinds of musical instruments. The population of the kingdom is estimated at about 200,000 persons. With respect to religion, the generality are Pagans, some are Mahommedans, and some Christians converted by the Portuguese, who have in the capital (likewise named Melinda) seventeen churches, nine convents, and ware-houses well provided with European goods. The city is surrounded by fine gardens, and has a good harbour defended by a fort; but the entrance is dangerous, on account of the great number of shoals and rocks under water.

The country of Ajan is the boundary of Zanguebar towards the north. It lies between lat. 2 deg. and 12 deg. north, extending from the river Magadoxo to Cape Gardafui, and contains several states or kingdoms; the principal of which are Adel or Zeila, and Magadoxo, the inhabitants of both which are Mahommedans. All the eastern coast of Ajan is said to be sandy and barren, but to the north the country is more fertile. The kings of Ajan are frequently at war with the emperor of Abyssinia, and sell the prisoners which they take; they trade likewise in ivory, gold, and horses of an excellent breed.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African islands, some lie in the Eastern or Indian Ocean, and some in the Western, or Atlantic. We shall begin with those in the Indian Ocean; the chief of which are, Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagascar, the Comora islands, Bourbon, and Mauritius.

ZOCOTRA. This island is situated in east long. 55° : north lat. 12° , thirty leagues east of Cape Guardafui, on the continent of Africa; it is eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ships used formerly to put in when they lost their passage to India. It is a populous, plentiful country, yielding most of the fruits and plants that are usually found within the tropics, together with frankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahommedans of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince, or sheik who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The island of Babelmandel gives name to the strait at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is situate in east long. 44° . $30'$. north lat. 12° ; about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyssinian shores. The Abyssinians, or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the Red Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance. The island is of little value, being a barren sandy spot of earth, not five miles round.

COMORA. These islands are five; Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angazei, and Comora, situate between 41° and 46° east long. and between 10° and 14° south lat. at an equal distance from Madagascar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, or Hinzuan, the chief, and which exacts tribute from the others, is about thirty miles long and fifteen broad, and affords plenty of provisions, and such fruits as are produced between the tropics. East India ships, bound to Bombay, usually touch here for refreshments. The inhabitants are negroes, of the Mahommedan religion, and entertain our seamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largest of the African islands, and is situate between 43 and 51° east long. and between 12 and 26° south lat. 300 miles south-east of the continent of Africa; it being nearly 1000 miles in length from north to south, and generally between 200 and 300 miles broad. The sea rolls with great rapidity, and is extremely rough, between this island and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or passage, through which all European ships in their voyage to and from India generally sail, unless prevented by storms.

Madagascar is a pleasant, desirable, and fertile country, abounding in sugar, honey, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious stones, iron, some silver, copper, steel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign; watered with numerous rivers, and well stored with fish. The air is generally temperate, and said to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; some white, some negroes; some Mahommedans, some Pagans. The whites, and those of a tawny complexion, who inhabit the coasts, are descended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language and their religious rites; but here are no mosques, temples, nor any stated worship, except that they offer sacrifices of beasts on particular occasions; as when sick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their assemblies, circumcise their children, declare war, enter into new-built houses, or bury their dead. Some of their ceremonies and practices resemble the Jewish, whence it is conjectured they are descended from Jews who formerly settled here, though none knows how, or when. This island was discovered by the Portuguese, and the French took possession of it in 1641; but the people disliking the government, they were driven out in 1652; since which the natives have had the sole possession of the island, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon each other for slaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS, or Maurice, was so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice, their stadtholder. It is situate in east long, 56° south lat. 20° about 400 miles east of Madagascar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ships, secure against any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high that their tops are covered with snow, produce the best ebony in the world, besides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The island is watered with several pleasant rivers, well stocked with fish, and, though the soil is none of the most fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and sheep. It was formerly subject to the Dutch, then to the French, who called it the Isle of France, but it is now in the possession of the English.

BOURBON. The isle of Bourbon is situate in east long. 54° south lat. 21° about 300 miles east of Madagascar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for shipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and south sides; but hardly a single harbour where ships can ride secure against those hurricanes which blow during the monsoons. Indeed the coast is so surrounded with blind rocks, sunk a few feet below the water, that coasting along shore is at all times dangerous. On the southern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames and smoke, with a hideous roaring noise. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreshed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the sea and land: sometimes, however, terrible hurricanes shake the whole island almost to its foundation; but generally without any other bad consequence than frightening the inhabitants. The island abounds in brooks and springs, and in fruits, grass, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there) aloes, white

pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin of an excellent sort, in great plenty. The rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea tortoises, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergrise, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are found upon the shore. The woods are full of turtle-doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye, and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the island of Madagascar. They have now some considerable towns in the island, with a governor. Since the revolution they have given it the name of Reunion.

There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where described.

Leaving therefore the eastern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immense ocean lying between the two grand divisions of the globe, having Europe, Asia, and Africa, or the old world, on the east; and America, or the new world, on the west; towards which division we now steer our course, touching in our way at the following islands upon the African coast, that have not yet been described, viz St. Helena, Ascension, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira Islands.

St. HELENA. The first Island on this side the Cape is St. Helena, situate in west long. $5^{\circ} 49'$ south lat. $15^{\circ} 55'$, being 1200 miles west of the continent of Africa, and 1800 east of South America. The island is a rock, about twenty-one miles in circumference, very high and very steep, and only accessible at the landing place, in a small valley at the east end of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually dashing on the shore, it is generally difficult landing even there. There is no other anchorage about the island but at Chapel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the south-east, if a ship overshoots the island ever so little, she cannot recover it again. The English plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian-corn: of the last, however, most part is devoured by rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be destroyed; so that the flour they use, is almost wholly imported from England; and in times of scarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Though the island appears on every side a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit trees and garden vegetables. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geese, and turkeys, with which they supply the sailors, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of calico, silks, muslin, arrack, sugar, &c.

St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese in 1502, on the festival of the empress Helena, mother of the emperor Constantine the Great, whose name it still bears. It does not appear that the Portuguese ever planted a colony here: and the English East India company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprise. However, the English, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the space of a year, and at the same time

took three Dutch East India ships that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the island, most of them descended from English parents. The East India ships take in water and fresh provisions here in their way home; but the island is so small, and the wind so much against them, outward-bound, that they then very seldom see it.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the company, besides a public table well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers are welcome.

ASCENSION. This island is situated in 7 deg. 57 min. south lat. and 13 deg. 59 min. west long. 600 miles north-west of St. Helena: it received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day, and is a mountainous barren island, about twenty miles round, and uninhabited; but it has a safe convenient harbour, where the East India ships generally touch to furnish themselves with turtle or tortoises, which are very plentiful here, and vastly large, some of them weighing above 100 pounds each. The sailors going ashore in the night time frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are sometimes so cruel as to turn many more than they use, leaving them to die on the shore.

St. MATTHEW. This is a small island lying in 6° 1' west long. and 1° 30' south lat. 300 miles to the north-east of Ascension, and was also discovered by the Portuguese; who planted and kept possession of it for some time, but afterwards deserted it. This island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there, except a small lake of fresh water.

The four following islands, viz. **St. THOMAS, ANABOA, PRINCE'S ISLAND,** and **FERNANDOPO,** are situate in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin: all of them were first discovered by the Portuguese, and are still in the possession of that nation, and furnish shipping with fresh water and provisions as they pass by.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, over against which they lie, at the distance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. west long. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were first discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about twenty in number; but some of them being only barren uninhabited rocks, and not worth notice. **St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio,** are the most considerable, and are subject to the Portuguese. The air, generally speaking, is very hot, and in some of them very unwholesome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans and negroes.

St. Jago, where the Portuguese viceroy resides, is the most fruitful, best inhabited, and largest of them all, being 150 miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits, plenty of roots, and garden vegetables; but the plant of most consequence to them is the madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs. Here is also plenty of hogs and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. **Bay, or Praya,** (famous for an action between an English and French squadron) is situate on the east side, has a good port, and is seldom without ships: those outward-bound

to Guinea or the East-Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the island of MAYO, or MAY, immense quantities of salt are made by the heat of the sun from the sea-water, which at spring tides is received into a sort of pan formed by a sand-bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English carry on a considerable trade for salt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels that come to load with it, which in some years amount to a hundred or more. The salt costs nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ships come hither for a freight of asses, which they carry to Barbadoes and other British plantations. The inhabitants of this island, even the governor and priests, are all negroes, and speak the Portuguese language. The negro governor expects a small present from every commander that loads salt, and is pleased to be invited aboard their ships. The sea-water is so clear on this coast, that an English sailor who dropped his watch perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The island of FOGO is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphureous exhalations : and sometimes the flame breaks forth like *Ætna*, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice-stones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is situated within cannon-shot of Cape Verd, in north lat. $14^{\circ} 43'$ west long. $17^{\circ} 20'$, and was so called by the Dutch from an island and town of the same name in Holland. It is a small spot not exceeding two miles in circumference; but its importance arises from its situation for trade so near Cape Verd, and it has been, therefore, an object of contention between European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the English; but in 1665, it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1667, subdued by the French, in whose possession it remained till the year 1759, when the British arms every where triumphant, again reduced it; but it was restored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the English in the American war, but given up again by the peace of 1783.

CANARIES The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Islands, are seven in number, and situate between 12 and 19 deg. west long. and between 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about 150 miles south-west of Morocco. Their particular names are Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuerteventura, and Langerote. These islands enjoy a pure temperate air, and abound in the most delicious fruits, especially grapes, which produce those rich wines that obtain the name of Canary, of which the greatest part is exported to England, to the amount, it is computed, in time of peace, of 10,000 hogsheads annually. The Canaries produce those little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now so common and so much admired in Europe.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and so extremely fertile as to produce two harvests in a year. Teneriffe, the largest of these islands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round; a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil, though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glass observes,

that in coming in with this island, in clear weather, the Peak may be easily discerned at 120 miles distance, and in sailing from it at 150. The Peak is an ascent in the form of a sugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and, according to the account of Sprat, bishop of Rochester, published in the Philosophical Transactions, nearly three miles perpendicular; but lately ascertained to be only 13,265 feet. This mountain is a volcano, and sometimes throws out such quantities of sulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richest lands into barren deserts.

These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans destroying that state, put a stop to the navigation on the west coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the rest of the world, until they were again discovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they still belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives resemble the Africans in their stature and complexion, when the Spaniards first came among them, their language was different from that spoken on the continent; they retained none of their customs, were masters of no science, and did not know there was any country in the world besides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three islands called the Madeiras are situate in a fine climate, in $32^{\circ} 27'$ north lat. and from $18^{\circ} 30'$ to $19^{\circ} 30'$ west long. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many west of Sallee, in Morocco. The largest, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeiras, on account of its being formerly almost covered with wood, is about seventy-five miles long, sixty broad, and 180 in circumference. It is composed of one continued hill of a considerable height, extending from east to west; the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated, and interspersed with vineyards; and in the midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in the whole island, which is named Funchal, seated on the south part of the island, at the bottom of a large bay: towards the sea it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is possible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it.

Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many ages, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1519; but others assert that it was first discovered by an Englishman in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still almost the only people who inhabit it. The Portuguese at their first landing, finding it little better than a thick forest, rendered the ground capable of cultivation, by setting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing, in great abundance, the richest wine, sugar, the most delicious fruits, especially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax: it abounds also with boars and other wild beasts, and with all sorts of fowls, besides numerous groves of cedar trees, and those that yield dragon's blood, mastic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweatmeats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This indeed is said to be the first place in the west where that manufacture was set on foot, and from thence was carried to the Brasils in

America. The Portuguese, not finding it so profitable as at first, have rooted up the greatest part of their sugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce several sorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the island, Malmsey, and Tent; of all which the inhabitants make and sell prodigious quantities. Not less than 20,000 hogsheads of Madeira, it is said, are yearly exported, the greatest part to the West Indies, especially to Barbadoes; the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when exposed to the sun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is said no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other islands, one called Porto Santo, which lies at a small distance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compass, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ships may ride with safety against all winds except the southwest, and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other island is an inconsiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward, through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western Islands, situate between 25 and 32 deg. west long. and between 37 and 40 deg. north lat. 900 miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel, or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the fifteenth century, by Joshua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was, by stress of weather, driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish islands. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of this discovery; on which the Portuguese set sail immediately and took possession of them, which they still retain. They were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All these islands enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air, but are exposed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently suffered; and also by inundations of the surrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits; they also abound in cattle, fowls, &c. It is said that no poisonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and that, if carried thither, they will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largest, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the most important of these islands on account of its harbour, which is spacious and has good anchorage; but it is exposed to the southeast winds. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the governor of these islands, as well as of the bishop.

AMERICA.

ITS DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST.

WE are now to treat of a country of vast extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in many respects more to that of nature than any other division of the globe. The particular circumstances of this country require that we should in some measure vary our plan, and before describing its present state, afford such information with regard to its discovery as is most necessary for satisfying our readers.

Towards the close of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their support to commerce. An interference of interests inspired a mutualrivalship; but in traffic Venice was much superior. She engrossed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed always, the most valuable in the world, but hitherto entirely carried on through the inland parts of Asia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red Sea. In this state of affairs, Christoval, or Christopher Colon, more generally known by his Latinized name Columbus, a native of Genoa, whose knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much superior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of sailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country a new source of opulence and power. But this proposal of sailing westward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoese as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as absurd. Stung with disappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, and laid his scheme before the court of France, where his reception was still more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII, of England was his next resort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the most opposite imaginable to a great but uncertain design. In Portugal, where the spirit of adventure and discovery about this time began to operate, he had reason to expect better success. But the Portuguese contented themselves with creeping along the coast of Africa, and discovering one cape after another: they had no idea of venturing boldly into the open sea. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, still remained firm; he became the more intent on his design the more difficulty he found in accomplishing it, and was inspired with that noble enthusiasm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only resource;

and there, after eight years attendance, he succeeded, and chiefly through the interest of queen Isabella. Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon the most adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend with; the most formidable was the variation of the compass, then first observed, and which seemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered in an unknown ocean, and that the only guide he had left was ready to forsake him. His sailors, always discontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and insisted on their return. But the firmness of the commander, and much more the discovery of land after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. Columbus first landed on one of the Bahama islands; but here, to his surprise and sorrow, discovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that these could not be the Indies he was in quest of. In steering southward, however, he found the island which he called Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, abounding in all the necessaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hospitable people, and, what was of still greater consequence, as it insured his favourable reception at home, promising, from some samples he received, considerable quantities of gold. This island therefore he proposed to make the centre of his discoveries; and, having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the necessary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona: Columbus travelled thither from Seville; amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, the utensils, and ornaments, of the country he had discovered. This entry into Barcelona was a species of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the islands in the great sea which divides North and South America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. The countries which he had discovered were considered as a part of India. Even after the error which gave rise to this opinion was detected, and the true position of the new world, was ascertained, the name has remained, and the appellation of the West Indies is given by all the people of Europe to the country, and that of Indians to its inhabitants. Thus were the West Indies discovered by seeking a passage to the East; and, even after the discovery, still conceived to be a part of the eastern hemisphere. The present success of Columbus, his former disappointments, and the glory attending so unexpected a discovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his designs now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of seventeen sail was immediately prepared: all the necessaries for conquest or discovery were embarked; 1500 men, among whom were several of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the most ample authority. It is impossible to determine whether the genius of this great man, in first conceiving the idea of these discoveries, or his sagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, most deserves our admiration. Instead of hurrying from sea to sea, and from one island to another, which, considering the ordinary motives to action among mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with such fields before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curiosity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the

court of Spain the discoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himself the unavailing applause of visiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleasure of seeing them. With this view he made for Hispaniola, where he established a colony; and erected forts in the situations most advantageous for securing the dependence of the natives. Having spent a considerable time in this employment, and laboured for establishing this colony, with as much zeal and assiduity as if his views had extended no further, he next proceeded to ascertain the importance of his other discoveries, and to examine what advantages were most likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which from some specimens, seemed a rich discovery; but whether it was an island, or a part of some great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To ascertain this point was the present object of his attention. In coasting along the southern shore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of islands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. These islands, which were well inhabited, and abounding in all the necessaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature where the world expected nothing but the barren ocean: he called them *Jardin de la Reina*, or the *Queen's Garden*, in gratitude to his royal benefactress, who was always present to his memory. In the same voyage Jamaica was discovered. But to so many difficulties was Columbus exposed, on an unknown sea, among rocks, shelves, and sands, that he returned to Hispaniola without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprise.

By the first success of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration: but, by a continuance of the same success, admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain set every spring in motion against him; and there is no difficulty in finding specious grounds of accusation against such as are employed in the execution of an extensive and complicated plan. An officer was dispatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a spy and informer, and whose presence plainly demonstrated to Columbus the necessity of returning to Europe, in order to obviate the objections or calumny of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to set out on a third expedition, still more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He designed to stand to the southward of the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly westward, that he might discover what opening that might afford to India, or what new islands, or what continent might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and suffering numberless inconveniences from the excessive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured with a smart gale, and went before it seventeen days to the westward. At the end of this time a seaman saw land, which was an island, on the coast of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having passed this island, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoco, the admiral was surprised with an appearance he had never seen before: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occasioned by a conflict between the tide of the sea and the rapid current of the immense river Oronoco. But sailing forward, he plainly discovered that they were in fresh water: and judging rightly that it was improbable any one should supply so vast a river, he began to suspect he had dis-

covered the continent ; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on the westward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with his discovery, he yielded to the uneasiness and distresses of his crew and bore away for Hispaniola. In the course of this discovery, Columbus landed at several places, where in a friendly manner he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the spirit of discovery spread itself widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wished to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without possessing his abilities. The Portuguese discovered Brazil, which makes at present the most valuable part of their possessions : Cabot, a native of Bristol, discovered the north-east coasts, which afterwards composed the British empire in North America : and Amerigo Vespuccio, a merchant of Florence, sailed to the southern continent of America, and being a man of address, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now imposed on by the name ; all the world knows that Columbus, or Colon, was the first discoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the smallest mortifications to which this great man was compelled to submit ; for such were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that after discovering the continent, and making settlements in the islands of America, he was treated like a traitor, and carried over to Europe in irons. He enjoyed, however, the glory of rendering one half of the world known to the other ; a glory so much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which disfigured all the exploits of those who came after him and accomplished the execution of his plan. He fully vindicated himself at court, was restored to favour, and undertook another voyage, in which he suffered great fatigues. He returned to Spain, and died at Valladolid, in 1506, in the 59th year of his age. The succeeding governors of Cuba and Hispaniola endeavoured to purchase the same advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good sense and humanity. These islands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew where they were situate : and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of persuasion, hurried them to acts of the most shocking violence and cruelty against those unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treasure. The slaughter once begun, they set no bounds to their fury ; in a few years they depopulated Hispaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants ; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de las Casas, a witness of those barbarous depopulations, says that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy savages almost naked and unarmed, were pursued like deer into the forests, devoured by dogs, killed with gun-shot, or surprised and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only visited the continent. From what they saw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a still more valuable conquest. Fernando Cortez was dispatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horses, and a small number of field-pieces. With this inconsiderable force, he proposed to subdue the most powerful state on the continent of America ; this was the empire of Mexico, rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indians passionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whose fame in arms struck terror into the neighbour-

ing nations. Never history, that was true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico had subsisted for ages; its inhabitants, it is said, were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a polished and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, whose wisdom is still admired in this particular, that the year consisted nearly of 365 days. Their superiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the sure basis of laws combined with religion, seemed to bid defiance to time itself. Mexico, the capital of the empire, situate in the middle of a spacious lake, was the noblest monument of American industry. It communicated with the continent by immense causeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of stone, its squares and market-places, the shops which glittered with gold and silver, and the sumptuous palaces of Montezuma, some erected on columns of jasper, and containing whatever was most rare, curious, or useful. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it against the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with a feeble opposition from the nations along the coast of Mexico, who were terrified at their first appearance: the warlike animals on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which issued from their hands, the wooden castles which had wafted them over the ocean, struck a panic into the natives from which they did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched, they spared neither age nor sex, nothing sacred or profane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlascala, and some other states upon the coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, entered into their alliance, and joined arms with those terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and, in his progress, discovered a volcano of sulphur and salt-petre, whence he could supply himself with powder. Montezuma heard of his progress without daring to oppose it. This sovereign is reported, by the boasting Spaniards, to have commanded thirty vassals, of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants armed with bows and arrows; and yet he dared not resist a handful of Spaniards, aided by a few Americans whose allegiance would be shaken by the first reverse of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spanish victories, which always marched before them.

By sending a rich present of gold, which only excited the Spanish avarice, Montezuma hastened the approach of the enemy. No opposition was made to their entry into this capital. A palace was set apart for Cortez and his companions, who were already treated as the masters of the new world. He had good reason, however, to distrust the affected politeness of this emperor, under which he suspected some plot for his destruction to be concealed; but he had no pretence for violence: Montezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was surrounded with artillery, the most terrible of all engines to the Americans. At last, a circumstance took place which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea to receive the necessary reinforcements, he erected a fort, and left behind him a small garrison at Vera Cruz, which has since become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this

garrison in his absence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; that Montezuma himself was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in person to the emperor, attended by a few of his most experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez seemed extremely ready to believe him, though, at the same time, he alledged that the Spaniards in general would never be persuaded of it, unless he returned along with them to their residence, which would remove all jealousy between the two nations. The success of this interview showed the superiority of European address. A powerful monarch, in his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up a prisoner, to be disposed of according to the inclination of a few strangers who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans had the highest respect, or rather superstitious veneration, for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and, at the same time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his tastes and passions, maintained the easy sovereignty of Mexico by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grow familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their respect, Montezuma was the first to teach them more politeness. Was there a tumult excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards, Montezuma ascended the battlements of his prison, and harangued his Mexicans into order and submission. This farce continued a long time; but on one of these occasions, when Montezuma was shamefully disgracing his character, by justifying the enemies of his country, a stone, from an unknown hand, struck him on the temple, which, in a few days, occasioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who, from timidity and feebleness of character, co-operated with the Spaniards, elected a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who, from the beginning, discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct, the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men, whom a little before they had offered to worship. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established to be expelled from Mexico.

The immense tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, besides an amazing quantity of precious stones, a fifth part of which, distributed among his soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish rather than part with so precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence; but all their valour and despair itself, gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Guatimozin and the empress were taken prisoners. This was the prince, who, when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to his high-priest condemned to the same punishment, and who loudly expressed his sense of the pains that he endured, "Do you imagine I lie on a bed of roses?" The high-priest remained silent, and died in an act of obedience to his sovereign. Cortez, by getting a second

emperor into his hands, made a complete conquest of Mexico ; with which the golden Castile, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they obtained intelligence of another great empire situated towards the equinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was said to abound in gold and silver, and precious stones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near 30 degrees, and was the only other country in America that deserved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened, that the Spanish government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, it did not choose to adventure on new enterprises, certain it is, that this extensive country, more important than Mexico itself, was reduced by the endeavours and at the expence of three private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a priest, but a man of considerable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. Pizarro, the soul of the enterprise, could neither read nor write. They sailed over into Spain, and, without difficulty, obtained a grant of what they should conquer. Pizarro then set out for the conquest of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and 12 small pieces of cannon, drawn by slaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spanish nation, and were, besides, of a character still more soft and unwarlike, it need not surprise us, after what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that, with this inconsiderable force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumstances likewise which conspired to assist him, and which, as they discover somewhat of the history and religion of these countries, and of the state of the human mind in this immense continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of those uncommon men, who, calm and dispassionate themselves, can observe the passions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He observed that the people of Peru were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun. He pretended, therefore, to be descended from that luminary, whose worship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear. By this story, romantic as it appears, he easily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction, a larger still he subdued by his arms ; but both the force and the deceit he employed for the most laudable purposes. He united and civilized a dispersed and barbarous people : he subjected them to laws and trained them to arms ; he softened them by the institution of a benevolent religion : in short, there was no part of America where agriculture and the arts were so assiduously cultivated, and where the people were of such mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as descendants of their great god, the Sun. The twelfth of these was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spanish Peru. To secure himself in the possession, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and from this

marriage sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Huescar, of a different mother, had claimed the succession to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Huescar, as a prisoner, in the tower of Cusco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble and disjointed state was the kingdom of Peru when Pizarro advanced to attack it. The ominous predictions of religion, too, as in most other cases, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the subjection of the empire by unknown persons, whose description exactly corresponded to the appearance of the Spaniards. In these circumstances, Atabalipa, instead of opposing the Spaniards, set himself to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whose temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those he called barbarians, but who, however, though less acquainted with the cruel art of destroying their fellow-creatures, were more civilized than himself. While he was engaged in conference, therefore, with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the guards of that prince, and, having butchered 5000 of them, as they were pressing forward, without regard to their particular safety, to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized Atabalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. Pizarro, with the sovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the master of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as strongly attached to their emperor as were the Mexicans. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat for his ransom. On this occasion the ancient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most sumptuous temples, were brought out to save him, who was the support of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negotiation, by which he proposed, without releasing the emperor, to get into his possession an immense quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro caused some embarrassment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external show of friendship, between these men, was solely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprising spirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous that might gratify their ruling passion. When their interests, therefore, happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any measures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the most considerable share of the treasure arising from the emperor's ransom, because he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro insisted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, lest the common cause should suffer by any rupture between them, this disposition was agreed to. The ransom was paid without delay, a sum exceeding their conception, but not sufficient to gratify their avarice. It amounted to 1,500,000*l.* sterling, and, considering the value of money in Europe at that time, was prodigious: on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the shares of the chief commanders and other officers, each private soldier had about 2000*l.* With such fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be subjected to the rigours of military discipline. They insisted on being disbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand, sensible that avarice would still detain a

number in his army, and that those who returned with such magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to pursue the same plan for acquiring gold. These expectations were abundantly verified; it was impossible to send out better recruiting officers than those who had themselves so much profited by the field; new soldiers constantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immense ransom was only a further reason for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until it was discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify their avarice. But whether the Spaniards believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince from whom they expected no further advantage; or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on account of some instances of craft and duplicity which he observed in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs; it is certain, that by his command, Atabalipa was put to death. To justify this cruel proceeding, a pretended charge was exhibited against the unhappy prince, in which he was accused of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumstances of equal impertinence. The only just ground of accusation against him was, that his brother, Huescar, had been put to death by his command; and even this was considerably palliated, because Huescar had been plotting his destruction, that he might establish himself on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility set up the full brother of Huescar; Pizarro set up a son of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. These distractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here, at another time, were at present rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against one another: their battles accustomed these harmless people to blood; and such is the preference of a spirit of any kind raised in a nation to a total lethargy, that, in the course of these disputes among themselves, the inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cause of all their calamities. The losses which the Spaniards met with in these quarrels, though inconsiderable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preserve among the inhabitants of the New World. This consideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and the interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city of Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war against the Indians, and, after many difficulties, made himself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the sea-coast, to the southward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the southward of Pizarro's government. This division occasioned a warm dispute between them, each reckoning Cusco within his own district; but the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He persuaded his rival, that the country which really belonged to him lay to the southward of Cusco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as easily conquered as Peru. He offered him

his assistance in the expedition, the success of which he did not even call in question.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of subduing a kingdom for himself, listened to his advice ; and joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged necessary, he penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili ; losing many of his men as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced, however, a very considerable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war not to take advantage of the division of the Spanish troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which Pizarro being indisposed, and Almagro removed at a distance, they were very nearly successful. The latter, however, no sooner got notice of the siege of Cusco, than, relinquishing all views of distant conquests, he returned to secure the grand object of their former labours. He raised the siege, with infinite slaughter of the assailants ; but, having obtained possession of the city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and bloody struggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the resentment fierce on both sides, because the fate of the vanquished was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the security of a rival, in whose dangers and triumphs he had long shared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprise, he had been intimately connected. During the course of this civil war, many Peruvians served in the Spanish armies, and learned, from the practice of Christians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable resolution. They saw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguishable resentment and avarice, and they conjectured that these passions would never permit their contests to subside. Let us retire, said they, from among them ; let us fly to our mountains ; they will speedily destroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This resolution was instantly put in practice : the Peruvians dispersed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each side been exactly equal, the singular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with success : but the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never since ventured to make head against the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now sole master of the field, and of the richest empire in the world, was still urged on by his ambition to undertake new enterprises. The southern countries of America, into which he had some time before dispatched Almagro, offered the richest conquest. Towards this quarter, the mountains of Potosi, yielding large quantities of silver, had been discovered, the shell of which only remains at present. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and sailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons : an immense navigation, which discovered a rich and delightful country ; but as it is mostly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it. Pizarro, meeting with repeated success, and having no superior to controul, no rival to keep him within bounds, now gave loose reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the basest

tyranny and cruelty against all who had not concurred in his designs. This conduct raised a conspiracy against him, to which he fell a sacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himself had founded. The partisans of old Almagro now declared his son, of the same name, their viceroy; but the greater part of the nation, though extremely well satisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor Charles V, then king of Spain, who sent over Vaca di Castro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wisdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the most advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management, the mines of la Plata and Potosi, which were formerly private plunder, become an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were silenced or crushed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, since the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was restored to Peru. It seems, however, that Castro had not been sufficiently skilled in gaining the favour of the Spanish ministry, by proper bribes or promises, which a ministry would always expect from a governor of so rich a country. By their advice a council was sent over to controul Castro, and the colony was again unsettled. The party spirit, but just extinguished, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, set himself at the head of his brother's partisans, with whom many new malecontents had united. It was now no longer a dispute between governors about the bounds of their jurisdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal submission to the king. He strengthened daily, and even went so far as to behead a governor who was sent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spanish fleet in the South Seas, by whose means he proposed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain, and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the situation of affairs, when the court of Spain, sensible of their mistake in not sending into America men whose character and virtue only, and not opportunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, dispatched, with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gasca, a man differing from Castro only by being of a more mild and insinuating behaviour, but with the same love of justice, the same greatness of soul, and the same disinterested spirit. All those who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt flocked to his standard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gasca, forsook their old connections; the admiral was gained over by insinuation to return to his duty; and Pizarro himself offered a full indemnity, provided he would return to the allegiance of the Spanish crown. But so intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was determined to run every hazard, rather than submit to any officer of Spain. With those of his partisans, therefore, who still continued to adhere to his interest, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered, and taken prisoner. His execution followed soon after; and thus the brother of him who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a sacrifice for the security of the Spanish dominion over that country.

The conquest of the great empires of Mexico and Peru is the only part of the American history which deserves to be treated under the present head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent, or of the islands, if it contains either instruction or enter-

tainment, shall be recorded under these particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, government, religion, and whatever composes the character of the natives of America; and as these are extremely similar all over this part of the globe, we shall speak of them in general, in order to save continual repetitions, noticing at the same time, when we enter upon the description of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants of each.

OF THE ORIGINAL INHABITANTS OF AMERICA.

The discovery of America has not only opened a new source of wealth to the busy commercial part of Europe, but an extensive field of speculation to the philosopher who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and observe the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the human understanding, when untutored by science, or untainted by corruption. So striking seemed the disparity between the inhabitants of Europe and the natives of America, that some speculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impossible they should be of the same species, or derived from one common source. This conclusion, however, is extremely ill-founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the necessaries of life, the force of custom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumstances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be discovered among them all, notwithstanding the various shades which characterise nations, and distinguish them from each other.

When the thirst of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immersed in what they call barbarism, but which, however, was a state of honest independence, and noble simplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively speaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almost every European art; even agriculture itself, the most useful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very sparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the necessaries of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and forests supplied in great abundance. This exercise, which among them is a most serious occupation, gives a strength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The same cause, perhaps, renders their bodies, in general, where the rays of the sun are not too violent, uncommonly straight and well-proportioned. Their muscles are firm and strong; their bodies and heads flattish, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. The colour of their skin is reddish brown, admired among them, and heightened by the constant use of bear's fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumstances and way of life. A people who are constantly employed in procuring the means of precarious subsistence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot

be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or high flow of spirits. The Indians, therefore, are, in general, grave even to sadness; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to some nations in Europe, and they despise it. Their behaviour to those about them is regular, modest, and respectful. Ignorant of the arts of amusement, of which that of saying trifles agreeably is one of the most considerable, they never speak but when they have something important to observe; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with some meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almost continually engaged in pursuits which to them are of the highest importance. Their subsistence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be lost by the smallest inattention to the designs of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the necessaries of life in greatest abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are, for the same reason, extremely small, when compared with civilized societies, in which industry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders useful to one another. These small tribes live at an immense distance; they are separated by a desert frontier, and concealed in the bosom of impenetrable and almost boundless forests.

There is established in each society a certain species of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with very little variation; because over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly similar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great instruments of subjection in polished societies, an American has no method by which he can render himself considerable among his companions, but by a superiority in personal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very lavish in her personal distinctions, where all enjoy the same education, all are nearly equal, and will desire to remain so. Liberty, therefore, is the prevailing passion of the Americans, and their government, under the influence of this sentiment, is better secured than by the wisest political regulations. They are very far, however, from despising all sorts of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wisdom, which experience has conferred on the aged; and they enlist under the banners of the chief, in whose valour and military address they have learned to repose their confidence. In every society, therefore, there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders: and according as the government inclines more to the one or the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, because the idea of having a military leader was the first source of his superiority, and, the continual exigencies of the state requiring such a leader, will continue to support and even enhance it. His power, however, is rather persuasive than coercive; he is revered as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice; and one act of ill-judged violence would deprive him of the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristocracy, have no more power. In some tribes, indeed, there

is a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence being constantly augmented by time, is more considerable. But this source of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our contemporaries that of their forefathers is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In most countries, therefore, age alone is sufficient for acquiring respect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only source of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among the Indians, business is conducted with the utmost simplicity, and such as may recall to those who are acquainted with antiquity a picture of the most early ages. The heads of families meet together in a house or cabin appointed for the purpose. Here the business is discussed, and here those of the nation distinguished for their eloquence or wisdom, have an opportunity of displaying those talents. Their orators, like those of Homer, express themselves in a bold figurative style, stronger than refined or rather softened nations can well bear, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided with food, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though like those of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind; and their music and dancing accompany every feast.

It often happens, that those different tribes or nations, scattered as they are at an immense distance from one another, meet in their excursions after prey. If there subsists no animosity between them, they behave in the most friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a state of war, or if there has been no previous intercourse between them, all who are not friends being deemed enemies, they fight with the most savage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they use, it is left to the women. Their most common motive for entering into a war, when it does not arise from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friend, or to acquire prisoners, who may assist them in their hunting, and whom they adopt in their society. These wars are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men who are disposed to go out to battle, for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination, give a piece of wood to the chief, as a token of their design to accompany him: for every thing among these people is transacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief who is to conduct them, fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams, which the presumption natural to savages generally renders as favourable as he could desire. A variety of other superstitious ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is sitting the war kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies; which among some nations must formerly have been the case; since they still continue to express it in clear terms, and use an emblem significant of the ancient usage. Then they dispatch a porcelain, or large shell, to their allies, inviting them to come

along and drink the blood of their enemies ; for with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

“ A generous friendship no cold medium knows,

“ Burns with one love, with one resentment glows.”

They think that those in their alliance must not only adopt their enmities, but have their resentment wound up to the same pitch with themselves. And, indeed, no people carry their friendships or their resentments so far as they do : and this is what should be expected from their peculiar circumstances ; that principle in human nature, which is the spring of the social affections, acts with so much the greater force the more it is restrained. The Americans, who live in small societies, who see few objects and few persons, become wonderfully attached to these objects and persons, and cannot be deprived of them without feeling themselves miserable. Their ideas are too confined, their breasts are too narrow to entertain the sentiment of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. But this very circumstance, while it makes them cruel to an incredible degree towards those with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendships, and to the common tie which unites the members of the same tribe, or those different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection, some facts we are going to relate would excite our wonder, without informing our reason, and we should be bewildered in a number of particulars seemingly opposite to one another, without being sensible of the general cause from which they proceed.

Having finished all the ceremonies previous to the war, they issue forth, with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermilion, which gives them a most horrid appearance. Then they exchange their clothes with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them a considerable distance, to receive those last tokens of eternal friendship.

The great qualities in an Indian warrior are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprise ; and indeed in these they are superior to all nations in the world. Accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness which at first appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smoke of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracts of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They even distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the precise time when they passed, where an European could not, with all his glasses, distinguish footsteps at all. These circumstances, however, give them no superiority, because their enemies are equally skilful. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might run the danger of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals ; they lie close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night ; and marching along in files, he that closes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place

where they suspect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes; and, while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, or make prisoners of as many of them as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprised of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested; when all at once, with a tremendous shout, rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musket-bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the same cry. Every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give a second fire. Thus does the battle continue until the one party is so much weakened as to be incapable of further resistance. But if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirit of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon their distant war, they rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. A cruel combat ensues; death appears in a thousand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouse the fury of savages. They trample, they insult over the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring their flesh. The flame rages on till it meets with no resistance; then the prisoners are secured, those unhappy men, whose fate is a thousand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have lost. They approach, in a melancholy and severe gloom, to their own village; a messenger is sent to announce their arrival; and the women, with frightful shrieks, come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice, to the elders, a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people; and, as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in these cries, according as each is most connected with the deceased by blood or friendship. The last ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable transition, they pass in a moment from the bitterness of sorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the prisoners, whose fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characterises the savages.

We have already mentioned the strength of their affections or resentments. United as they are in small societies, connected within themselves by the firmest ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the most intense warmth within the walls of their own village, seldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their resentment is easily extended from the individual who has injured them to all others of the same tribe. The prisoners, who have themselves the same feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, accord-

ing to the distribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If those who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occasion for him, or their resentment for the loss of their friends be too high to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same severe sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled at the execution as for some great solemnity. A scaffold is erected, and the prisoners are tied to the stakes, where they commence their death-song, and prepare for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. Their enemies on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe, made red hot, which he smokes like tobacco; then they pound the toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they pull off the flesh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately; they pull off this flesh, thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, whilst others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours; and sometimes, such is the strength of the savages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard-of torments, often falls into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his sufferings. He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty; they stick him all over with small matches of wood, that easily take fire, but burn slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires; after having so mangled the body that is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red-hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, runs, hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is succeeded by a feast as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies, even outdo the men in this scene of horror; while the principal persons of the country sit round the stake, smoking, and looking on without the least

emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seems a contest, which shall exceed, either in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmness and constancy almost above human: not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance escapes him; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exasperate them to a perfect madness of rage and fury, he continues his insults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquisite methods and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men: and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwise, as it would be for any European to suffer as an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early institution, and a ferocious thirst of glory. I am brave and intrepid, exclaims the savage in the face of his tormentors. I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; those that fear them are cowards; they are less than women; life is nothing to those who have courage; may my enemies be confounded with despair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the last drop!

Nothing in the history of mankind forms a stronger contrast than this cruelty of the savages towards those with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who consist of all those who live in the same village, or are in alliance with it. Among these all things are common; and this, though it may in part arise from their not possessing very distinct notions of separate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the strength of their attachment; because in every thing else, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to serve their friends. Their houses, their provisions, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. Has any one of these succeeded ill in hunting...has his harvest failed...or is his house burned, he feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow-citizens. But to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended him, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until by some treachery or surprise, he has an opportunity of executing a horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment; no distance of place great enough to protect the object: he crosses the steepest mountains, he pierces the most impenetrable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts for several hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity; and such indeed, in general, is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have said respecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit observing the force of their friendship, which principally appears by the treatment of the dead. When any one of the society is cut off, he is lamented by the whole; on this occasion

a thousand ceremonies are practised denoting the most lively sorrow. Of these, the most remarkable, as it discovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what is called the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order; and nothing is omitted, that it may be celebrated with the utmost pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be present and to join in the solemnity. At this time, all who have died since the last solemn occasion, which is renewed every ten years among some tribes, and every eight among others, are taken out of their graves: those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcasses.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general disinterment. We cannot describe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the most authentic account of those nations.

Without question, says he, the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human misery, in death, which appears in a thousand various shapes of horror in the several carcasses, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a sort of parchment upon their bones; some look as if they were baked and smoked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction: while others are all swarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deserves our admiration more, than that eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness, gathering up carefully even the smallest bones; handling the carcasses, disgusting as they are with every thing loathsome, cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders, through tiresome journeys of several days, without being discouraged from the offensiveness of the smell, and without suffering any other emotions to arise than those of regret for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives, and so lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feast in honour of the dead; during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses which took place between them and their friends are piously called to mind. The strangers, who have come sometimes many hundred miles to be present on the occasion, join in the tender condolence; and the women, by frightful shrieks, demonstrate that they are pierced with the sharpest sorrow. The dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general re-interment. A great pit is dug in the ground; and thither, at a certain time, each person, attended by his family and friends, marches in solemn silence, bearing the dead body of a son, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or dust of those which were quite corrupted, are deposited in the pit; when the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they possess most valuable is interred with the dead. The strangers are not wanting in their generosity, and confer those presents which they have brought along with them for the purpose. Then all present go down into the pit, and every

one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preserve with the most religious care. The bodies ranged in order, are covered with entire new furs, and, over these, with bark, on which they throw stones, wood and earth. Then taking the last farewell, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned, that in this ceremony the savages offer, as presents to the dead, whatever they value most highly. This custom, which is universal among them, arises from a rude notion of the immortality of the soul. They believe this doctrine most firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the soul is separated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it still continues to hover around it, and to require, and take delight in, the same things with which it formerly was pleased. After a certain time, however, it forsakes this dreary mansion, and departs far westward into the land of spirits. They have even gone so far as to make a distinction between the inhabitants of the other world; some, they imagine, particularly those who in their life-time had been fortunate in war, possess a high degree of happiness, have a place for hunting and fishing, which never fails; and enjoy all sensual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The souls of those, on the contrary, who happened to be conquered or slain in war, are extremely miserable after death.

Their taste for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a strong bias to their religion. Areskouï, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field; and, according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude they shall be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun or moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods; traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are still more absurd and inconsistent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and, except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strongly addicted to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii, spirits who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diseases proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The ministers of the genii are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These jugglers are supposed to be inspired by the good genii, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the genii whether their patients will recover, and in what manner they must be treated. But these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and in almost every disease direct the juggler to the same remedy. The patient is enclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own sweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which costs many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewise the use of some specifics, of wonderful efficacy: and all the savages are dexterous in curing wounds by the application of

herbs. But the power of these remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are administered.

It should be observed by the reader, that the particulars which have just been mentioned concerning the manners of the Americans, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteristics of great part of the original inhabitants of South America were very different. On the first appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their discoverers found them to be in many particulars very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemisphere. They were different in their features and complexions; they were not only averse to toil, but seemed incapable of it; and when roused by force from their native indolence, and compelled to work, they sunk under tasks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with ease. This feebleness of constitution seemed almost universal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were also struck with the smallness of their appetite for food. The constitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded, in their opinion, the abstinence of the most mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetite of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans insatiably voracious; and they affirmed that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day than was sufficient for ten Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very sparing, so limited was their agriculture, that they hardly raised what was sufficient for their own consumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their industry to rearing a few plants, which, in a rich and warm climate, were easily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards settled in any district, such a small addition of supernumerary mouths soon exhausted their scanty stores, and brought on a famine. The inhabitants of South America, compared with those of North America, are generally more feeble in their frame, less vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle but dastardly spirit, more enslaved by pleasure, and sunk in indolence.

A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.

This great western continent, frequently denominated the **NEW WORLD**, extends from the 80th degree north, to the 56th degree south latitude; and, from the 35th to the 168th degree of west longitude from London. Its whole length is 9591 miles, and its greatest breadth 4570. Across the Isthmus of Darien, it is only 34 miles broad, making a mean breadth of about 1500 miles. It lies in both hemispheres, has two summers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is washed by the two great oceans. To the eastward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa; and to the west the Pacific, or Great South Sea, by which it is separated from Asia. By these seas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is composed of two great continents, one on the north, the other on the south, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a kind of isthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, so extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult. In the great gulf which is formed between the isthmus and the northern and southern continents lie a multitude of islands, many of them large, most of them fertile,

and denominated the West Indies, in contradistinction to the countries and islands of Asia beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the East Indies.

A country of such vast extent on each side of the equator must necessarily have a variety of soils as well as climates. It is a treasury of nature, producing most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. The gold and silver of America have supplied Europe with such immense quantities of those valuable metals, that they are become vastly more common; so that the gold and silver of Europe now bear little proportion to the high price set upon them before the discovery of America.

This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other valuable stones, which, by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewise to lower their value. To these, which are chiefly the production of Spanish America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use. Of these are the plentiful supplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brasil, fustic, pimento, *lignumvitæ*, rice, ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate nut; sugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, redwood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, that valuable article in medicine the Jesuits' bark, mechoacan, sassafras, sarsaparilla, cassia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the discovery of America, Europeans were either entire strangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoese, who then engrossed the trade of the eastern world.

This continent has also a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicats, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes; great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants; and so fertile is the soil, that many exotic productions are nourished in as great perfection as in their native ground.

Though the Indians still live in quiet possession of many large tracts, America is chiefly divided between the United States and three European nations; the Spanish, English, and Portuguese. The Spaniards, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest portions, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, in North America, to the straits of Magellan, in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Brasil, which belongs to Portugal; for, though the French and Dutch have some forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the southern continent.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America was Great Britain, who derived her claim to North America from the first discovery of that continent by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII, anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was generally called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated solely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before any attempt was made to settle in this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, first showed the way, by planting a colony in the southern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his mistress, queen Elizabeth.

The French, from this period until the conclusion of the war in 1763, laid a claim to, and actually possessed, Canada and Louisiana, comprehending all that extensive inland country, reaching from Hudson's Bay on the north, to Mexico, and the gulf of the same name, on the south.

The multitude of islands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided among the Spaniards, English, and French. The Dutch indeed possess three or four small islands, which in any other hands would be of no consequence; and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deserve to be named among the proprietors of America. We shall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north; but Labrador, or New Britain, and the country round Hudson's Bay, with those vast regions towards the pole, are little known.

A SUMMARY VIEW OF THE FIRST SETTLEMENTS OF THE DIFFERENT PARTS OF NORTH AMERICA.

Names of Places.	When settled.	By whom.
Mexico, about	1520	By the Spaniards.
Florida	1524	By the Spanish.
Canada	1608	By the French.
Virginia, June 10 .	1609	By Lord Delawar.
Newfoundland, June	1610	By Governor John Guy.
New York } about	1614	By the Dutch.
New Jersey }		
Plymouth	1670	By part of Mr. Robinson's congregation.
New Hampshire . .	1623	{ By a small English colony, near the mouth of Piscataqua river.
Delaware } . . .	1627	By the Swedes and Finlanders.
Pennsylvania }		
Massachusetts Bay .	1628	By Captain John Edicot and Company.
Maryland	1633	{ By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman-catholics.
Connecticut	1635	{ By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode Island . . .	1635	{ By Mr. Roger Williams, and his persecuted brethren.
New Jersey	1664	{ Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II, and made a distinct government, and settled some time before this by the English.
South Carolina . .	1669	By Governor Sale.
Pennsylvania . . .	1682	By W. Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
Louisiana	1685	By M. de la Salle.
North Carolina, about	1728	{ Erected into a separate government, settled before by the English.
Georgia	1732	By General Oglethorpe.
Tennessee	1755	{ By Colonels Wood, Buchanan, and others.
Kentucky	1773	By Colonel Daniel Boon.
Vermont	1777	{ By emigrants from Connecticut, and other parts of New England.
Ohio	1787	By the Ohio and other companies.

THE GRAND DIVISIONS OF NORTH AMERICA.

NAMES.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	CHIEF TOWNS.		Belongs to
				Names.	Dist. and bearing from Philadelphia	
New Britain	1800m.	850m.	1,000,000	None		Great Britain
Lower Canada	800	450	250,000	Quebec	692m. N. E.	Ditto
Upper Canada	1090	525	600,000	York	450 N. W.	Ditto
Nova Scotia	397	154	14,000	Halifax	720 N. E.	Ditto
New Brunswick	210	165	30,000	St. John's	768 N. E.	Ditto
Cape Breton	109	84	7,000	Sydney	880 N. E.	Ditto
St. John's	100	55	5,000	Charlottetown	923 N. E.	Ditto
New England	626	200	72,000	Boston	322 N. E.	United States
New York	340	300	52,125	New York	91 N. E.	Ditto
New Jersey	160	75	8,320	Trenton	31 N. E.	Ditto
Pennsylvania	310	160	49,000	Philadelphia	Lat. 39 57 N. Lon. 75 8 W fr. L.	Ditto
Ohio	228	227	43,860	Cincinnati	600 W.	Ditto
Indiana	284	155	39,000	Vincennes	815 W.	Ditto
Illinois	347	206	52,000	Kaskaskia	961 W.	Ditto
Michigan	256	154	34,800	Detroit	637 N. W.	Ditto
Delaware	92	34	2,200	Wilmington	27 S. W.	Ditto
Maryland	212	123	14,000	Baltimore	100 S. W.	Ditto
Virginia	442	235	70,500	Richmond	262 S. W.	Ditto
Kentucky	328	183	40,110	Lexington	600 W.	Ditto
North Carolina	472	188	50,500	Newbern	420 S.	Ditto
Tennessee	420	104	47,200	Knoxville	677 S. W.	Ditto
South Carolina	236	210	33,800	Charleston	701 S.	Ditto
Georgia	305	259	60,000	Savannah	806 S. W.	Ditto
Mississippi	390	273	88,680	Natchez	1382 S. W.	Ditto
Missouri	1100	700	800,000	St. Louis	1018 W.	Ditto
Louisiana	375	220	40,000	New-Orleans	1597 S. W.	Ditto
East Florida	475	400	52,000	St. Augustine	980 S. W.	Spain
West Florida	135	90	8,000	Pensacola	1040 S. W.	Ditto
New Mexico and California }	2000	1400	600,000	Santa Fé St. Juan	2747 W. 2500 S. W.	Ditto
Mexico, or New Spain }	2000	600	318,000	Mexico	3000 S. W.	Ditto

GRAND DIVISIONS OF SOUTH AMERICA.

NAMES.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Distance and bearing from London.	Belongs to
Terr. Sirona	1400	700	700,000	Panama	4650 S. W	Spain
Peru	1800	1400	970,000	Lima	5520 S. W.	Ditto
Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 miles long, and 960 broad.						
Guiana	780	480	250,000	Surinam Cayenne	3840 S. W.	Dutch French
Brazil	2500	700	940,000	St. Sebastian	6000 S. W.	Portugal
Parag. or La Plata	1500	1000	1,000,000	Buenos Ayres	6040 S. W.	Spain
Chili	1260	580	206,000	St. Jago	6600 S. W.	Ditto
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia }	1100	300	300,000	The Spaniards took possession of it, but did not think it worth while to settle there.		

The principal Islands of North America belonging to Europeans, are

	ISLANDS.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	CHIEF TOWNS.	Belonging to
In the Atlantic.	Newfoundland	380	280	35,500	Placentia	Great Britain
	The Bermuda Isles	20,000 acres		40	St. George	Ditto
	The Bahama ditto	900	300		Nassau	Ditto
	Jamaica	170	60	6,000	Kingston	Ditto
	Barbadoes	21	14	160	Bridgetown	Ditto
	St. Christopher	18	4	70	Basseterre	Ditto
	Antigua	20	20	90	St. John's	Ditto
	Nevis and } Montserrat }	each of these is 18 circumference		60	Charlestown Plymouth	Ditto
	Barbuda	20	12	60		Ditto
	Anguilla	30	6	60		Ditto
West India Islands, lying in the Atlantic, between North and South America.	Dominica	28	16	290	Rousseau	Ditto
	St. Vincent	24	10	130	Kingston	Ditto
	Granada	24	13	110	St. George's	Ditto
	Tobago	32	9	108	Scarborough	Ditto
	Cuba	700	150	54,000	Havannah	Spain
	Hispaniola	450	150	36,000	St. Domingo	Ditto & Independ.
	Porto Rico	115	49	4,100	Porto Rico	Spain
	Trinidad	70	50	2,897	Port Espana	Ditto
	Margarita	40	24	624	Assumption	Ditto
	Martinico	50	16	300	St. Peter's	France
	Guadaloupe	45	33	250	Basseterre	Ditto
	St. Lucia	30	12	90		Great Britain
	St. Bartholomew	12	8	60	Gustavia	Sweden
	Deseada	12	6	50		France
	Marigalanta	16	4	60		Ditto
	St. Eustacia	29 circumference			The Bay	Dutch
	Carassou	60	10	342	Amsterdam	Ditto
	St. Thomas	9	3	30	St. Thomas	Denmark
	St. Croix	30	10	80	Basse-End	Ditto

British Islands in North America, and the West Indies, 46,930 square miles.

GREENLAND.

THIS extensive country, though it has been said to belong properly neither to America nor Europe, must certainly be referred to the former continent, whether it be an island, or united to the main land to the north of Davis's Straits, by which it is bounded on the west. To the south it terminates in a point called Cape Farewell, in north lat. $59^{\circ} 38'$, west long. $42^{\circ} 40'$; on the south-east it is washed by the Atlantic; and on the east it is bounded by the icy sea, and the strait which separates it from Iceland, from which it is distant about 200 miles; to the north its limits are unascertained.

The climate of this country is extremely severe, the greater part of it being almost continually covered with ice and snow. Among the vegetables of this cold country are sorrel, angelica, wild tansey, and scurvy grass. Europeans have sown barley and oats, which have grown as high as in warmer climates, but have seldom advanced so far as to ear, and never, even in the warmest places, come to maturity. The trees are some small junipers, willows, and birch. The animals are white hares, foxes, rein-deer, and white bears, which are fierce and mischievous. The only tame animals are a species of dogs resembling wolves. The shores are frequented by the walrus, and several kinds of seals; and the seas contain various species of whales, some of which are white, and others black; of the black sort, the grand bay whale is in most esteem, on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords. He is usually between sixty and eighty feet in length: his tongue is about eighteen feet long, inclosed in long pieces of what is called whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horse hair; and on each side of his tongue are 250 pieces of this whalebone; the bones of his body are as hard as those of an ox, and of no use. A number of ships are employed annually in the whale fishery in the seas of Greenland. When a whale appears, they man their boats, of which each ship has four or five, carrying six or eight men; and when they come near the fish, the harpooner, who stands at the head of the boat, strikes him with his harpoon, or barbed dart. The creature, finding himself wounded, dives swiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him, if they did not give him line fast enough. Such is the velocity of his motion, that to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope against the side of it, one of the men is constantly employed in wetting it. After the whale has run some hundred fathoms, he is forced to come up again for air, when he spouts out the water with such a terrible noise, that some have compared it to the firing of cannon. As soon as he appears on the surface, the harpooner fixes another harpoon in him, when he plunges again into the deep as before: and, when he again comes up they pierce him with spears in the vital parts, till he spouts out streams of blood instead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the sea is covered with foam. The boats continue to follow him some leagues, till he has lost his strength, and when he is dying he turns himself upon his back, and is drawn on shore, or to the ship, if the land be at a great distance: there they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber, extract the

oil, if they have conveniences on shore ; otherwise they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home. Every fish is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3*l.* or 4*l.* the barrel. The Greenland whale fishery is principally carried on by the English and (when at peace with England) the Dutch nations : in 1785, the former employed 153 ships in this fishery, and the latter 65.

The vast fields and mountains of ice in these seas, many of which are above a mile in length, and 100 feet in thickness, are equally stupendous, and, when illuminated by the sun's rays, dazzling and beautiful. Their splendour is discernible at the distance of many leagues. In one place, it is said, at the mouth of an inlet, the ice has formed magnificent arches, extending the length of about 25 miles. But when the pieces floating in the sea are put in motion by a storm, and dash one against the other, the scene they exhibit is most terrible. The Dutch had thirteen ships crushed to pieces by them in one season.

By the latest accounts from the missionaries employed for the conversion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 constant inhabitants. Mr. Crantz, however, thinks the roving southlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. They are low of stature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not so tall. The hair of their heads is long, straight, and of a black colour : but they have seldom any beards, because it is their constant practice to root them out. They have high breasts and broad shoulders, especially the women, who are obliged to carry great burdens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can also use their hands with much skill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers ; but they are good humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their food is principally fish, seals, and sea-fowl. The men hunt and fish ; but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themselves no farther about it ; nay, it would be accounted beneath their dignity even to draw out the fish upon the shore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and also the curriers to dress the pelts, and make clothes, shoes, and boots out of them ; so that they are likewise both shoemakers and tailors. The women also build and repair the houses and tents, so far as relates to the masonry, the men doing only the carpenters work. They live in huts during the winter, which is incredibly severe ; but, according to Crantz the Moravian missionary, in the longest summer days it is so hot, from the long continuance of the sun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their summer garments. They are very dexterous in hunting and fishing, particularly in catching and killing seals.

Greenland was first discovered in the ninth century by some Icelanders who were by accident driven on the coast. So favourable was the account they gave of the country, that several families went and settled there, and established a colony, which was converted to Christianity by a missionary, sent thither in the reign of Olaf, the first Christian monarch of Norway. Under the protection of this prince, the Greenland colony continued to increase and thrive ; several towns, churches, and convents were built, and bishops appointed, under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Drontheim. The colony appears then to have extended over above 200 miles in the south-eastern extremity of the country, and to have carried on a considerable commerce with Norway ; but the intercourse ceased in 1406, when the last bishop was sent, and from that time till the beginning of the last

century all knowledge of Greenland seems in a great degree to have been lost. In 1720, however, Hans Egede, minister of Vigen in Norway, conceived the idea of going in search of the remains of the ancient colony, if any existed; and having, with some difficulty, procured an approbation of his plan from the court of Copenhagen, went to Greenland, where he continued till 1735, preaching the gospel to the natives, and making many converts. His example was followed by several other missionaries; and about thirty years afterwards the Moravians began their settlements here, which were chiefly in the south-west part of the country. Denmark now claims this part of Greenland, and a company is established at Copenhagen, which sends thither three or four ships every year.

East Greenland, or Spitzbergen, was for a long time considered as united to, and a part of West, or Old Greenland, but is now known to be a cluster of islands, lying between 76 and 80 degrees of north latitude, and 9 and 24 of east longitude, and is generally referred to Europe. It was discovered, according to some, by Sir Hugh Wel- loughby, in 1553, or, as others suppose, by the Dutch navigator Ba- rentz, in 1596. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen (or craggy moun- tains) from the height and ruggedness of its rocks. The mainland or principal of these islands, is about 300 miles in length from north to south. The few vegetables and animals are nearly the same with those of West Greenland. The mountains and islands of ice present the same appearance; and the whale fishery is carried on along the coasts. The Russians claim this dreary country, and maintain a kind of colony here from Archangel. The inland parts are uninhabited.

BRITISH AMERICA.

UNDER the general name of British America is comprehended the vast extent of country bounded on the south by the United States of America and the Atlantic Ocean; on the east by the same ocean and Davis's Straits, which divide it from Greenland; extending, on the north, to the northern limits of the Hudson's Bay charter, and westward indefinitely: lying between 42 and 70 degrees of north lati- tude, and between 50 and 96 of west longitude.

British America is now divided into six provinces, viz. 1, Upper Canada; 2, Lower Canada, to which is annexed New Britain, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay and Newfoundland; 3, New Bruns- wick, originally included in Nova Scotia; 4, Nova Scotia; 5, Cape Breton, and 6, St. Johns.

The British colonies in North America are under the superinten- dence of an officer styled the governor-general of the British pro- vinces in North America, who, besides other powers, is commander in chief of all the British troops in the provinces, and the govern- ments attached to them. Each of the provinces has a lieutenant-go- vernor, who in the absence of the governor-general has all the powers requisite to a chief magistrate.

The number of inhabitants in the whole of these northern British colonies has been estimated at about 350,000.

NEW BRITAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1800	} between	{ 50 and 70 North latitude.	1,000,000
Breadth 850		{ 56 and 110 West longitude.	

BOUNDARIES....New Britain, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay, and commonly called the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, and New North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands and frozen seas, about the pole, on the north ; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east ; by the bay and river of St. Lawrence and Canada on the south ; and by unknown lands on the west.

BAYS, STRAITS, AND CAPES....These are numerous, and take their names generally from the English navigators and commanders by whom they were first discovered. The principal bay is that of Hudson, and the principal straits are those of Hudson, Davis, and Belisle.

MOUNTAINS....In the northern part of this country are high mountains, covered with eternal snow ; and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occasion a degree of cold in the winter over all this country which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the same latitude.

RIVERS....The principal rivers are the Wager, Monk, Seal, Pockerekesko, Churchill, Nelson, Hayes, New Severn, Albany, and Moose ; all of which fall into Hudson's and James's bays from the west and south. The mouths of all these rivers are full of shoals, except Churchill's, in which the largest ships may lie ; but ten miles higher the channel is obstructed by sand-banks. All the rivers, as far as they have been explored, are full of rapids, and cataracts from ten to sixty feet perpendicular. Down these rivers the Indian traders find a quick passage ; but their return is a labour of many months. Copper-mine and M'Kenzie's rivers fall into the North Sea.

LAKES....Slave Lake, which may be considered as forming part of the northern boundary of New Britain, is situated between latitude $60^{\circ} 30'$ and 65° North, and between longitude 110° and 119° West. Its length is about 270 miles, and its circumference about 1100. Its waters are discharged into the North Sea by M'Kenzie's River.

Lake Atilapescow, or the Lake of the Hills, lies about 220 miles S. E. of Slave Lake, with which it is connected by Slave River. It is about 180 miles long, but every where narrow. Fort Chipewyan is situated at the S. W. extremity of this lake, in latitude $58^{\circ} 40'$ North, long. $110^{\circ} 30'$ West.

The smaller lakes of New Britain are very numerous. Among them are, Lake La Loche, La Crosse, Black Bear, Northlined, Doo-baunt Lakes, &c. of which little is known but the names.

METALS, MINERALS....The mountains of Labrador appear to abound

in iron ore. White spar is very common; and that beautiful kind, called from the country Labrador spar, is collected on the shores of the sea and lakes by the Esquimaux, or natives, for the rocks have not been discovered. Several small springs have been found which have a weak chalybeate taste.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE....The climate of these regions is intensely cold, and the country, in consequence, extremely barren. To the northward of Hudson's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is seen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth has been supposed incapable of any better production than some miserable shrubs. Every kind of European seed committed to the earth in this inhospitable climate has hitherto perished; but perhaps the seed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway would be more suitable to the soil. All this severity, and long continuance of winter, and the barrenness of the earth which comes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-two; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

ANIMALS....These are the moose-deer, stags, rein-deer, bears, tigers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermines, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have geese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fish, there are whales, morses, seals, cod-fish, and a white fish preferable to herrings: and in their rivers and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at fort Nelson, in one season, ninety thousand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thousand hares.

All the animals of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the several animals. When that season is over, which continues only for three months, they all assume the livery of winter, and every sort of beasts, and most of their fowls, are of the colour of the snow: every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a surprising phenomenon; but it is yet more surprising, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried to Hudson's Bay, on the approach of winter have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair than they had originally.

INHABITANTS....The native inhabitants of this country are composed of different tribes; those on the coast of Labrador are called Esquimaux, or Iskimos. These appear to be of a different race from the other native Americans, from whom they are particularly distinguished by a thick and bushy beard. They have small eyes, large dirty teeth, and black and rugged hair. They go well clothed, in skins, principally of bears, and are said to be very mild tempered and docile. They seem to be the same people with the Greenlanders, and have a resemblance to the Laplanders and Samoids of the north of Europe and Asia.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE....The knowledge of these northern seas and countries was owing to a project started in England for the discovery of a north-west passage to China and the East Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of discovery it seems manifest, that no practicable passage ever can be found. Frobisher only discovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given

his name. In 1585, John Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coast, but he seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure; the first 1607, the second in 1608, and the third and last in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the straits that led into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties he struggled with in this empire of winter, and world of frost and snow, he staid here until the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him, and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy seas in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages; but the ship and the rest of the men returned home.

Other attempts towards a discovery were made in 1642 and 1667; but though the adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they navigated this bay, their project even in its failure, has been of great advantage to this country. The vast countries which surround Hudson's Bay, as we have already observed, abound with animals whose fur and skins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive trade to this bay; and they have acted under it ever since, with great benefit to the individuals who compose the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this exclusive company, whose interested spirit has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ but four ships and 130 seamen. They have several forts, viz. Prince of Wales, Churchill, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stands on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by 186 men. They export commodities to the value 16,000*l.* and bring home returns to the value of 29,340*l.* which yields to the revenue 3734*l.* This includes the fishery in Hudson's Bay. The only attempt to trade in that part which is called Labrador has been directed towards the fishery, the annual produce of which amounts to upwards of 49,000*l.*

LOWER CANADA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 800 }	between	{ 61 and 71 West longitude. }	250,000
Breadth 450 }		{ 45 and 52 North latitude. }	

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by New Britain, on the north; by New Hampshire, Maine, the Gulf of St. Lawrence and New Britain, on the east; by New Brunswick, Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont and New York, on the south; and by Upper Canada on the west.

DIVISIONS....Lower Canada is divided into twenty-one counties, viz. Gaspé, Cornwallis, Devon, Hertford, Dorchester, Buckinghamshire, Richelieu, Bedford, Surrey, Kent, Huntingdon, York, Montreal, Effingham, Leinster, Warwick, St. Maurice, Hampshire, Quebec, Northumberland, and Orleans.

MOUNTAINS....There are some mountains in the northern part of this country, and others between Quebec and the sea, but none that deserve particular notice.

RIVERS....The principal river of Lower Canada is the St. Lawrence. This river issues from the N. E. extremity of Lake Ontario, in lat. 44° N. It forms the boundary of the United States, till it intersects the 45° of N. Latitude. Here it leaves the United States, and running a N. E. course 600 miles, empties its immense mass of water into the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, and as far as Quebec, 320 miles, it is navigable for the largest vessels. It receives after its departure from Ontario numerous large tributary streams, and embosoms a multitude of islands. It is 90 miles wide at its mouth; 5 near Quebec; thence to Montreal, 170 miles, it varies from 4 to 2; thence to Kingston it grows narrower and its navigation is interrupted by rapids and becomes dangerous. This noble river, if considered as commencing with the west streams of Lake Superior, is upwards of 2000 miles in length; and is surpassed by no river in North America, with regard to the quantity of water passing through its channel.

The Outawas, takes its rise in Lake Abbitibbee in lat. 49° N. and pursues a S. W. direction for about 35 miles, when it strikes the boundary line between Lower and Upper Canada. Thence its course is nearly south to lake Temiskaming. Passing through the lake it turns to the S. E. which direction it continues about 250 miles, when in lat. 45° 30' it forms the two small lakes of Chat and Chaudire. Hence it runs nearly west upwards of 100 miles, till it forms a junction with the St. Lawrence, near Montreal.

The Saguenai draws its source from lake St. John, and pursues an easterly direction through a mountainous and barren region. It is interrupted in its course by abrupt precipices, and being bounded by

banks of great elevation, is remarkable for the depth and impetuosity of its current. There is a fall of fifty feet about ninety miles from its mouth. The impetuous torrent of this river, when the tide is low, is sensibly felt in the St. Lawrence, which for the distance of many miles is obliged to yield to its impulse. Its breadth is generally near three miles, except near its mouth, where it contracts to one third of that extent. An attempt has been made in the centre of its mouth, to sound the depth with 500 fathom of line: but no bottom was found. One and half miles higher, the depth has been ascertained at 138 fathoms, and 60 miles above it is near 60 fathoms.

The other principal rivers of Lower Canada, are the Sorelle, which discharges the waters of Lake Champlain into the St. Lawrence, near the head of Lake Peter; the Valiere, St. Francis, Chateogua and Chaudiere, with several others, emptying into the St. Lawrence from the south; and Black, Montmorenci, St. Anne, St. Maurice, and Masquinange rivers, with a great number of smaller streams, which discharge into the St. Lawrence from the north.

LAKES....The largest lake of this province is the Mistissinny which is situated in lat. 57° N. long. 74° W. from London, and is 70 miles long. by 60 broad. Lake St. John is situated in lat. $48^{\circ} 30'$ N. long. $72^{\circ} 30'$ W. from London. It is of an oval form, and is 35 miles long and 25 broad. It discharges its waters at the eastern end, by two streams which commence at the distance of five miles from each other, and after forming a circle of about 30 miles diameter, unite in long. 71° W. and give rise to the Saguenai river. Lake Abbitibbee, the source of the river Outawas, lies in lat. $48^{\circ} 45'$ N. and between the 79° and 80° of W. long. from London. It is 40 miles long from east to west, and 10 miles broad. Lake Temiskaming, lies about 100 miles S. W. of Lake Abbitibbee, and is formed by the river Outawas. It is 36 miles long and of an irregular breadth not exceeding 12 miles. Lake Peter is formed by the St. Lawrence, where it receives the waters of the Sorelle in lat. 46° N. It is 21 miles long by 15 broad. Lake St. Francis is situated in the S. W. corner of the province, and extends into New York and Upper Canada. It is 43 miles long and 10 broad.

METALS AND MINERALS....Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in some of the mountains, we are told, silver has been found. This country also abounds with iron and coal. A mine of the former is worked on the Three Rivers, about nine miles above the town.

CLIMATE....Winter, in this country, continues with such severity from December to April, that the largest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet in depth; but the air is so serene and clear, and the inhabitants so well defended against the cold, that this season is neither unhealthy nor unpleasant. The Spring opens suddenly, and vegetation is surprisingly rapid; the summer is delightful, except that a part of it is extremely hot. The cold in winter is not so severe as it was when the first settlements were made. By observations taken in the island of Orleans, during a course of 60 years, it appeared, that in that period the medium of cold had risen eight degrees. The St. Lawrence has not been completely closed, by the ice, at Quebec, since the year 1799.

SOIL AND PRODUCE....Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the soil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleasant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco thrives well,

and is often cultivated. The isle of Orleans, near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Lawrence, and other rivers, are remarkable for the richness of their soil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle.

TIMBER AND PLANTS....The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greatest forests in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itself. Nothing is more magnificent to the sight; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that even amongst those persons who have taken most pains to describe them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are describing produces, amongst others, two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and the female maple; three sorts of ash trees, the free, the mongrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech trees and white wood; white and red elms; and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty persons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of flowers, which, when shaken in the morning before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into sugar, the seed being a pod containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant, which resembles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hop plant.

The trees of the British provinces, are, however, generally inferior in size to those of the United States, on account of the rigour of the climate.

ANIMALS....These make the most curious, and hitherto the most interesting part of the natural history of Canada. In their spoils has heretofore consisted the principal part of the trade of this country, and they furnish the materials of many important manufactures. Those animals which are common to Canada and the United States will be described under the latter. Those which appear to be peculiar to this and the more northern provinces, are,

The *Lupus Cervarius*, commonly called the *Loup Cervier*, a species of lynx, the same as the lynx of Siberia. A few stragglers are occasionally seen in Maine, but they mostly confine themselves to the higher latitudes. They are covered with long greyish hair. Their fur is fine, close, and highly esteemed. Their length varies from two to three feet, and the tail is about six inches long, and tipped with black.

The *Kincajou*, is a very common animal in some parts of Canada, and is a formidable enemy to the deer, numbers of which are destroy-

ed by him annually. This animal is about the size of the domestic cat, and of the same family. His hair is of a yellowish hue.

The *Ermine*. This is a species of weazel, and indeed differs from the common weazel, in nothing but colour. This is nearly the same in summer, but in winter the ermine is perfectly white, excepting the tip of his tail, which is black. The fur of this little animal is highly valued.

The *Morse* and *Seal* are found in great numbers on the coasts of Greenland and Labrador. They also visit the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, but are rarely seen now on those of Canada, though formerly they not unfrequently visited New England. They are amphibious animals, and spend most of their time in the water. The head of the morse bears a very strong resemblance to that of the elephant, on which account it is frequently denominated the sea-elephant. This animal is found from twelve to sixteen feet in length. Its tusks are preferred to those of the elephant, being harder and whiter. The seal is much hunted for its oil. It is inferior in size to the morse, being from four to nine feet in length; the skins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not so fine as morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less liable to crack. The shoes and boots made of these skins let in no water. When properly tanned they also make excellent covering for seats.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goshawks, tercols, and partridges. Woodcocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes and other water game, are plentiful. Here are black-birds, swallows, and larks; no less than twenty-two different species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but always at a distance from houses. The Canadian wood-pecker is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very showy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring.

Some writers are of opinion, that the fisheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Lawrence contains, perhaps, the greatest variety of fish of any in the world, and these in the greatest plenty, and of the best sorts.

Besides a great variety of other fish in the rivers and lakes, are porpoises, the lencornet, the goberque, the sea-plaise, salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, the chaourason, sturgeon, the achigau, the gilthead, tunny, shad, lamprey, smelts, conger-eels, mackerel, soles, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. Some of the porpoises of the river St. Lawrence are said to yield a hogshead of oil; and of their skins waistcoats are made, which are excessively strong, and musket proof. The lencornet is a kind of cuttle fish, quite round, or rather oval: there are three sorts of them, which differ only in size; some being as large as a hogshead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the last, and that with a torch: they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sea-plaise is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaourason is an armed fish, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, resembling a pike; it is covered with scales that are proof against a dagger; its colour is a silver gray; and there grows under its mouth a long bony substance, ragged at the edges. One may easily conceive that an animal so well fortified is a ravager among

the inhabitants of the water; but we have few instances of fish making a prey of the feathered creation, which this fish does, however, with much art. He conceals himself among the canes and reeds, in such a manner that nothing is to be seen besides his weapon, which he holds raised perpendicularly above the surface of the water; the fowls which come to take rest, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no sooner alighted, than the fish opens its throat, and makes such a sudden motion to seize his prey, that it seldom escapes him. This fish is an inhabitant of the lakes. The sturgeon is both a fresh and salt-water fish, taken on the coast of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a small kind of sturgeon, the flesh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fish peculiar to the river St. Lawrence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from that of the Nile.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES... Percé rock in the St. Lawrence presents a curious appearance. It is perforated in three places in the form of arches, through the central and largest of which, a boat with sails set, may pass with great facility. This rock, which, at a distance exhibits the appearance of an aqueduct in ruins, rises to the height of nearly two hundred feet. Its length, which is at present four hundred yards, must have been once much greater; as it has evidently been washed by the sea, and by the frequent impulse of storms.

The falls of Montmorenci, on the river of that name, exceed those of Niagara in height, by 80 feet, being 246 feet nearly perpendicular. The water descends in a single sheet, falling, where it touches the rock, in clouds of foam. The vapours arising, fly off from the fall in the form of a revolving sphere, glittering in the sun with all the colours of the rain-bow, and emitting with velocity, pointed flakes of spray, which spread in receding, until intercepted by the neighbouring banks, or dissolved in the atmosphere. The breadth of the falls is one hundred feet.

On the river Chaudiere about four miles from its mouth is a fall of 120 feet. The water, being separated by rocks, forms three distinct cataracts, the largest of which is on the western side. The cavities worn in the rocks, cause the descending waters to revolve with foaming fury, to whose whiteness the gloomy cliffs present a strong opposition of colour. In winter nearly the whole fall is congealed into solid columns of ice.

On the river St. Anne, there are no less than seven falls which are near to each other, the principal and lowest of which is 130 feet high. There is a number of other cataracts in Lower Canada, but there is a degree of sameness in their appearance, which renders it unnecessary to enumerate them.*

POPULATION...In 1813 the population of this province was stated at 250,000 persons, exclusive of Indians. The latter were once very numerous, but their number is now insignificant. There is a tribe called the Mountaineers, descendants of the Algonquins, who inhabit the country around lake St. John. Their number does not exceed 1300. They are remarkable for the mildness and gentleness of their manners; and are never known to make use of offensive weapons. There is also a small settlement of Hurons, in the parish of Jeune Lorette, about nine miles N. W. of Quebec, and a village of 800 Iroquois

* Heriot.

near Montreal. These, with a few Indians in the neighbourhood of St. Regis, at the head of lake St. Francis, constitute the principal part of the aborigines of Lower Canada.

CHIEF TOWNS....Quebec, the capital, not only of Lower Canada, but of all British America, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 360 miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, of black lime slate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houses in both are of stone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are strong, though not regular; and added to the natural advantages of the situation, render Quebec one of the strongest fortresses in the world. The town is defended by a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor resides. The number of inhabitants has been computed at 15,000. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all on a sudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies opposite the town, is safe and commodious, and about five fathoms deep. The harbour is flanked by two bastions, that are raised 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox. The principal public buildings of this city are, the Catholic cathedral church, the Jesuits' college, the Catholic seminary, the monastery of the Recollets, the protestant metropolitan church, the court house, the Hotel Dieu, a charitable institution for dispensing medicines to the poor, the convent of the Ursulines, the bishops palace, public hospital, arsenal, goal, &c. In most of these, no great degree of taste or elegance can be discovered, although much labour and expense must have been bestowed on their construction.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in sailing up the river St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way; several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, show themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. The country resembles the well settled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters live wholly within themselves. Many beautiful islands are interspersed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After passing the Richelieu islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himself transported to another climate; but this is to be understood of the summer months.

The town called Trois Rivières, or the Three Rivers, is about half-way between Quebec and Montreal. It is situated upon a point of land, near the confluence with the St. Lawrence, of the stream from which it derives its name. It extends about three quarters of a mile, along the north bank of the former. The surrounding country is flat, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. The soil is composed of sand, mixed with black mould. In the mouth of the stream, there are two islands, which divide it into three branches, and hence it has acquired the name of the Three Rivers. This town was formerly much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who, by means of these rivers, came hither with various kinds of furs and skins, to trade with the inhabitants. The natives have, however, for some years past, discontinued these visits. The town contains a convent of Ursulines, to which is adjoined a parochial church, and an hospital. It sends two members to the assembly.

Montreal stands on an island in the river St. Lawrence, which is thirty miles in length, and seven in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the south shore. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island was become a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well formed streets; and when it fell into the hands of the English, the houses were built in a very handsome manner; and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southernmost side of the river, as the hill, on the side of which the town stands, falls gradually to the water. The place is surrounded with a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but since it became subject to the English it has suffered much by fires. In 1809 the population was stated at 16,000.

The town of William Henry, or Sorelle, is agreeably situated at the confluence of the river Sorelle with the St. Lawrence, and contains a protestant and a Roman catholic church, and between 100 and 200 dwelling houses. La Chine is a small village situated at the south-east end of the island of Montreal, and is the place from whence all the merchandize and stores for Upper Canada are embarked.

TRADE....The amount of the exports from the province of Lower Canada, in the year 1786, was 343,263*l.*; the amount for imports in the same year was 325,116*l.* The exports consisted of wheat, flour, biscuit, flax-seed, fish, pot-ash, ginseng, and other medicinal roots; but principally of timber, furs and peltries, to the amount of 285,977*l.* The imports consisted of rum, brandy, molasses, coffee, sugar, wines, tobacco, salt, provisions for the troops, and dry goods. Since that period, but especially since the present war between Great Britain and the United States, this trade has very greatly increased. The following statement, given by Mr. Anderson, of the timber exports, shews the advantages which the trade of this country has derived from the war.

White Oak timber. The quantity exported from Quebec in 1804, was, loads, 2,626; in 1806, 5,452; in 1810, 22,532.

Yellow and Red Pine. In 1804, 1,012 loads, 115 masts; in 1806, 2,761 loads, 354 masts; in 1810, 69,271 loads, 7,655 masts.

Deals, or Pine Plank. In 1804, pieces, 69,067; in 1806, 66,166; in 1810, 312,432.

Staves. Of these Canada affords a most abundant supply. The quality is excellent, commanding in the London market, prices equal to those imported from Dantzic. The quantity exported from Quebec, was in 1804, pieces, 1,061,195; in 1806, 1,803,234; in 1810, 3,887,306.

In proportion as the population of Canada has increased the exports of furs have diminished.

The produce of the North-West Company in 1798, was as follows:

Beaver skins, 106,000; Bear, 2,100; Fox, 1,500; Kitt Fox, 4,000; Otter, 4,600; Musquash, 17,000; Martin, 32,000; Mink, 1,800; Lynx, 6,000; Wolverine, 600; Fisher, 1,650; Raccoon, 100; Wolf, 3,800; Elk, 700; Deer, 750; Deer, dressed, 1,200; Buffalo robes, 500; and a quantity of castorum.

That of 1810, consisted of the following: Beaver skins, 98,523; Bear, 10,751; Otter, 2,645; Musquash, 9,971; Martin, 554; Mink,

169; Lynx, 327; Wolverine, 517; Fisher, 2,536; Raccoon, 39,521; Wolf, 19; Elk, 534; Deer 32,551; Cat, cased and open, 2,428; Swan, 1,833; Hare, 2,684.

GOVERNMENT....By the Quebec act, passed by the parliament of Great Britain, in the year 1791, it is enacted that there shall be with-in each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, a legislative council and an assembly, who, with the consent of the governor appointed by the king, shall have power to make laws; but the king may declare his dissent at any time within two years after receiving any bill. The legislative council is to consist of not fewer than seven members for Upper and fifteen for Lower Canada, to be summoned by the governor, who must be authorised by the king. They hold their seats for life unless they forfeit them by an absence of four years, or transferring their allegiance to some foreign power. The house of assembly is to consist of not less than sixteen members from Upper and fifty from Lower Canada, chosen by the freeholders in the several towns and districts. The council and assembly are to be called together at least once in every year, and every assembly is to continue four years, unless sooner dissolved by the governor.

RELIGION....About nine-tenths of the inhabitants of these provinces are Roman Catholics, who enjoy, under the present government, the same rights and privileges as were granted them in 1772, by the act of parliament then passed. The rest of the people are protestants of various sects.

LANGUAGE....The general language of this country is the French; English being confined to the British settlers, who are much fewer in number than the inhabitants of French descent.

HISTORY....This country was discovered by the English as early as 1497; but the first settlement in it was made by the French, in 1608, who retained possession of it till 1760, when it was conquered by the British arms, and, by the treaty of Paris, in 1763, ceded by France to the crown of England, under the government of which it has ever since continued.

One of the most remarkable events which history records of this country, is the earthquake in the year 1663, which overwhelmed a chain of mountains of free-stone, more than 300 miles long, and changed the immense tract into a plain.

UPPER CANADA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1090	} between	{ 74 and 97 West Longitude.	} 600,000
Breadth 525		{ 42 and 52 North Latitude.	

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by New Britain on the north; by Lower Canada, New York, and lake Ontario, on the east; by the lakes Superior, Huron, Erie, and Ontario, and by New York and the North West territory of the United States, on the south; and by the lakes Winnipeg, Huron, and St. Clair, and by Michigan territory and New Britain on the west.

DIVISIONS....Upper Canada is divided into nineteen counties, viz. Glengary, Stormount, Dundas, Grenville, Leeds, Frontenac, Ontario, Addington, Lenox, Prince Edward, Hastings, Northumberland, Durham, York, Lincoln, Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, and Kent. These are subdivided into townships.

MOUNTAINS....The most considerable mountains of this province are a branch of the rocky mountains, which extend from the principal range in about long. 120° west, to the eastern coast of Labrador.

RIVERS....The principal rivers are; the French, which connects the small lake Nipissing with lake Huron; the Severn, which joins lake Simcoe to Huron; the Thames, which discharges into lake St. Clair; the Ouse, which empties into lake Erie; and the Trent, falling into the Ontario. The Michipicoten empties into the N. E. corner of lake Superior, and the Nipogon unites the small lake St. Anne with Superior. The Albany and Moose take their rise among the rocky mountains, and flow into Hudson's Bay. The waters of the Trent and Severn are nearly united by means of a number of small lakes, thus forming what is called a back communication between lakes Huron and Ontario.

LAKES....The description of the great lakes which divide Upper Canada from the United States, will be given under the latter. The division line runs through the middle of lakes Superior, Huron, Erie, and Ontario.

Lake Winnipeg lies between latitude $50^{\circ} 37'$ and $54^{\circ} 30' W$. Next to lake Superior, it is the largest body of fresh water in the world. Its length is 280 miles, and its breadth about 150. Its southern bank is flat and level, and its northern high and rocky.

Parallel to lake Winnipeg, and not far west from it, are the two small lakes of Red Deer and Manitoba. They are each about half the length of lake Winnipeg, and about one fourth as wide.

The Lake of the Woods lies in lat. $49^{\circ} 37' N$. and long. $94^{\circ} 31' W$. According to the treaty of Paris, the boundary line between the United States and the British possessions runs through this lake and continues westward till it strikes the Mississippi. This was owing

to want of information respecting the relative situation of this lake and the Mississippi, as the head of the latter lies two degrees south of the Lake of the Woods. The boundary, of course, remains still to be settled, but when it is, it is probable the whole of this lake will lie within Upper Canada. Red lake lies a short distance S. W. of the Lake of the Woods. These lakes are both small.

Lake Nipissing lies in lat. 46° N. long. 80° W. at about an equal distance from the river Outawas and lake Huron. It is about 40 miles long from north to south, and 25 wide. French river connects it with lake Huron. Lake Simcoe lies between the 44th and 45th degrees of north latitude and the 79th and 80th of west longitude. It is fifty miles long and twenty broad. Lake St. Anne lies about 60 miles north of lake Superior. Lakes Sturgeon and St. Joseph are in the neighbourhood of the same lake.

MINERALOGY....Iron ore is abundant, but it is not manufactured.

MINERAL WATERS....On the south side of the river Trent there are salt springs. Springs of the same kind have been found in other parts of the province. There is a spring near the falls of Niagara, which emits inflammable gas sufficiently hot to boil water in fifteen minutes.

CLIMATE....The climate of the settled part of Upper Canada is much milder than that of Lower Canada. The duration of the winter is not so long. The frost is less severe, nor are the snows so frequent and deep.

SOIL AND PRODUCE....The soil of Upper Canada when first cultivated proves very productive. But it is light and easily exhausted. By manuring, and a skilful change of crops its fertility may be preserved, and this method of farming is usually pursued by the English colonists. But the French Canadians when they have worn out one piece of land, generally remove to another. The productions are the same as those of Lower Canada and New York. Wheat, maize, barley, flax, &c. are commonly cultivated. Grapes, mulberries, blackberries, plums, and other wild fruits are abundant.

ANIMALS....These are the same with those of Lower Canada and the United States.

POPULATION....The latest computation makes the population of this province amount to 80,000. The inhabitants are principally from the United States, with some from Lower Canada and England.

CHIEF TOWNS....York, the seat of government, is situated on the north-west side of lake Ontario, in latitude $43^{\circ} 35'$ N. long. $79^{\circ} 15'$ W. It has a deep and commodious harbour. The first buildings were erected in 1791. The town, according to the plan, is projected to extend to a mile and a half in length, from the bottom of the harbour along its banks. The number of houses, is at present about 150.

Kingston is pleasantly situated, on the St. Lawrence, twenty miles above lake Ontario, in lat. $44^{\circ} 8'$ N. and in west long. $75^{\circ} 41'$. The dwelling houses, which are about 150 in number, are commodious and constructed of stone. It contains extensive barracks and store-houses; a goal, court-house, episcopal church, hospital, &c. The vessels navigating lake Ontario are built and wintered here. The building of this town was commenced in 1784.

Newark is situated on a point of land formed by the west bank of the river Niagara, and lake Ontario. It is a mile in length, on the lake, and contains a presbyterian and episcopal church, and 500 inhabitants.

Malden lies in north latitude $42^{\circ} 15'$, west longitude $82^{\circ} 45'$, near the head of lake Erie, on the river Detroit. It is the most southerly town in British America, and is 30 miles north-west of Point au Plai, the southernmost point of Canada. It is defended by fort Amherstburg, and contains near 500 inhabitants.

Queenstown is a flourishing place, on the Niagara river, seven miles south of Newark. Here the principal part of the merchandize and stores, for the upper part of the province are landed. It contains 300 inhabitants.

Chippeway, three miles from the falls of Niagara, and six south of Queenstown, is a thriving village; as is Sandwich, on the Detroit, 18 miles north of Malden, and Elizabethtown, in the district of Johnstown near lake Ontario.

TRADE....A large proportion of the furs of the north-west company, are now drawn from Upper Canada. They export to Lower Canada, flour, salted beef and pork, butter, cheese, pot-ash, and live cattle, besides immense quantities of timber. Their imports are the same as those of the lower province, and pass to them, through Montreal. Before the war with the United States, a brisk trade was carried on between the opposite shores of lake Ontario.

GOVERNMENT....This is the same as that of Lower Canada, with which it has been described.

RELIGION....The methodists form the most numerous religious sect. Next to these are the presbyterians, who are principally from the United States. There are some episcopalians from England, and a few catholics from Lower Canada.

LANGUAGE....English is spoken by almost all the inhabitants. There are a few French and Germans.

HISTORY..The first fort erected in Upper Canada was that of Catarocony, now the town of Kingston, built by the count de Frontenac in 1672. The settlement at Michilimackinac, which was made the preceding year, is within the territory of the United States.

The Iroquois, the most formidable of the North American Indians, possessed the country round lake Ontario, and for a long time prevented its settlement. M. de Dénonville, governor of Canada, made an expedition into their country in 1687, destroyed a number of their villages, and constructed fort Niagara. Sickness and famine, however, obliged the garrison to abandon the fort before the end of the year. In 1689 the Iroquois made an incursion into Lower Canada, and obliged the French to abandon and destroy the fortress of Catarocony. In 1695 the garrison was re-established by M. de Frontenac. No actual settlements were however made, while Canada remained in the possession of the French. The town of Kingston was commenced by the English in 1784. York the capital was built as late as 1807.

NOVA SCOTIA AND NEW BRUNSWICK.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	350	} between	43 and 49 North latitude.	}	44,000
Breadth	300		60 and 68 West longitude.		

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS....Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, in the original and more extensive application of the name, is bounded by the river St. Lawrence on the north; by the gulf of St. Lawrence, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; the same ocean, south; and by Canada and New England, west.

This country, in 1784, was divided into two provinces or governments, viz. NOVA SCOTIA proper, and NEW BRUNSWICK. Nova Scotia proper is a peninsula, joined to the continent by a narrow isthmus, at the north-east extremity of the bay of Fundy: it is separated on the north-east from Cape Breton island by the gut of Canso; on the north it has a part of the gulf of St. Lawrence, and the straits of Northumberland, which divide it from the island of St. John; on the west it has New Brunswick, and the bay of Fundy; on the south and south-east the Atlantic Ocean. Its length is about 307 miles from Cape Sable on the south-west, to Cape Canso on the north-east. Its extreme breadth is 154 miles; but, between the head of Halifax harbour and the town of Windsor, it is only about 35 miles broad.

New Brunswick is bounded on the west by the District of Maine, on the north by Lower Canada, on the east by the gulf of St. Lawrence, and straits of Northumberland, and on the south by Nova Scotia and the Bay of Fundy.

Nova Scotia is divided into nine counties, viz. Halifax, Hants, King's, Annapolis, Cumberland, Queens, Mary's river, Shelburne, and Sydney. These are divided into above 40 townships.

RIVERS....The principal rivers in New Brunswick are St. John's, which is navigable for vessels of fifty tons, about sixty miles; and St. Croix, which divides this province from the district of Maine, in the United States. The river of Annapolis, in Nova Scotia proper, is navigable 15 miles for vessels of 100 tons.

METALS, MINERALS....Copper has been found at Cape D'Or, on the north side of the basin of Minas, and there are mines of coal at Cumberland, and on the east river, which falls into Pictou harbour. Iron ore abounds in the neighbourhood of Annapolis.

LAKES....The lakes are numerous, but many of them have as yet received no particular names. Grand Lake, near St. John's river, is about 30 miles long, and 10 broad. Lake Rossignal, 20 miles S. E.

of Annapolis, is about 15 miles long, by 10 broad. It is the source of Liverpool river. Chester lake, 20 miles S. E. of Windsor, is about 15 miles long, but very narrow.

CLIMATE....Until within a few years past, the climate of Nova Scotia was supposed to be improving. Since the year 1807 the severity of the winters has however considerably increased. In 1809 the harbour of Halifax was completely closed with ice, a circumstance which had not taken place before, for 20 years. The winters of New Brunswick are very bleak. The springs are late and rainy, but summer while it continues is mild and pleasant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE....Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, till lately, was almost a continued forest; and agriculture, though attempted by the English settlers, made little progress. In many parts, the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produces is of a shrivelled kind, like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold spongy moss. There are, however, tracts in the peninsula, to the southward, which do not yield to the best land in New England, and, by the industry and exertions of the loyalists from the other provinces, are now cultivated, fertile and flourishing. In general the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar. Flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the new settlements and bay of Fundy. A great quantity of land has been cleared, which abounds in timber; and many loads of good masts and spars are shipped from thence annually.

ANIMALS....These provinces are not deficient in the animals of the neighbouring countries, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupeds, have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the close of March the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the sturgeon and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage of New Scotland is the Cape Sable coast, along which is one continued range of cod-fishing banks, navigable rivers, basins, and excellent harbours.

POPULATION....The whole population of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the islands adjoining, is about 120,000.

CHIEF TOWNS....The capital of Nova Scotia proper is Halifax, which stands upon Chebucto Bay, very commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with most parts of the province, either by land carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war lies during the winter, and in summer puts to sea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fishery. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. The number of inhabitants is 8000.

St. John, the capital of New-Brunswick, is situated at the mouth of the river St. John. It contains upwards of 1000 inhabitants.

Pictou, in the county of Halifax, contains 500 inhabitants. Frederickton, the present seat of government in New-Brunswick, is situated on the river St. John, 80 miles from its mouth.

The other principal towns are Liverpool, Lunenburg, Annapolis, Windsor, Barrington, Argyle, Yarmouth, Digley, Shelburne and Manchester in Nova Scotia, and St. Andrews in New Brunswick.

Shelburne and Manchester, formerly among the most considerable towns of Nova Scotia, have lately fallen very much to decay.

TRADE....The amount of imports from Great Britain into this country was, in 1753, 934*l.*; of exports 29,552*l.* In 1810, the imports, at the port of Halifax alone, amounted to 600,000*l.*; and the imports into the whole province amounted to 1,200,000*l.* The articles exported are, timber and fish. Two hundred thousand tons of timber were exported from the two provinces in 1810.

HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT....Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. The first grant of lands in it was given by James I, to his secretary, Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then, it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation, backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the English till the peace of Utrecht; and their design in acquiring it does not seem to have so much arisen from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French by possessing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other settlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were transported, in 1749, at the charge of the government into this country, where they erected the town of Halifax, so called from the earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement.

BRITISH ISLANDS IN NORTH AMERICA.

The islands belonging to Great Britain in North America are Newfoundland, Cape Breton, St. John's, and the Bermudas, or Summer Islands.

NEWFOUNDLAND is situate on the east side of the gulf of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and between 52 and 59 of west longitude. It is separated from Labrador, or New Britain, by the straits of Belleisle, and from Canada by the bay of St. Lawrence; being 380 miles long, and 287 broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast. The cold of winter is here long continued and severe, and the summer heat, though sometimes violent, is not sufficient to produce any thing valuable, the soil being rocky and barren. It is, however, watered by several good rivers, and has many large and excellent harbours. This island seems to be rather hilly than mountainous, with woods of birch, small pine, and fir: but on the south-west side are lofty headlands. It is chiefly valuable for the great fishery of cod, carried on upon those shoals, which are called the banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and the United States, at the lowest computation, annually employ 3000 sail of small craft in this fishery, on board of which, and on shore, to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of 100,000 hands. This fishery is computed to yield 300,000*l.* a year from the cod sold in Catholic countries. The numbers of cod, both in the great bank and the lesser, are inconceivable; and not only cod but several other species of fish are caught there in abundance, all of which are nearly in equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the island of Cape Breton, and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts.

The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia containing 3000 inhabitants, Bonavista, and St. John's. A small squadron is sent in the spring to protect the fisheries and inhabitants, the admiral of which, for the time being, is governor of the island, besides whom their is a lieutenant governor, who resides at Placentia.

This island was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1496, and both the French and English had made settlements there in the beginning of the seventeenth century. After various contests and disputes, however, the island was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713: but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern shores of the island: and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the gulf of St. Lawrence; but with the limitation that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The small islands of St. Pierra and Miquelon, situate to the southward of Newfoundland, were also

ceded to the French, under the stipulation, that they should erect no fortifications on those islands, nor keep more than fifty soldiers to enforce the police. By the treaty of 1783, the French were to enjoy their fisheries on the northern and western coasts, the inhabitants of the United States having the same privileges as before their independence, and the late treaty of Paris confirmed the privileges then granted to the French. The number of inhabitants is not less than 30,000.

CAPE BRETON....This island, called by the French *Les Isles de Madame*, and afterwards *Isle Royale*, lies between 45° and 47° N. lat. and between 59° and 61° W. long. from London. It is about 109 miles in length, and 84 in breadth; and is separated from Nova Scotia by a narrow strait, called the Gut of Canso, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the gulf of St. Lawrence. The soil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louisbourg, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where six or seven fathoms water. The inhabitants amount to 3000.

The French began a settlement in this island in 1714, which they continued to increase, and fortified it in 1720. They were, however, dispossessed in 1745, by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little assistance from Great Britain; but it was again, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, ceded to the French, who spared no expence to fortify and strengthen it. Notwithstanding which, it was again reduced, in 1758, by the British troops, under general Amherst and admiral Boscawen, together with a large body of New England men, who found in that place two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon, and eighteen mortars, together with a large quantity of ammunition and stores; and it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the peace of 1763, since which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louisbourg dismantled.

ST. JOHN'S....Situate in the gulf of St. Lawrence, is about 100 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, and has many fine rivers; and, though lying near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to four thousand, submitted quietly to the British arms: and, to the disgrace of the French governor, there were found in his house several English scalps, which were brought there to market by the savages; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This island was so well improved by the French, that it was styled the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It has several fine rivers, and a rich soil. Charlotte-town is the capital, and the residence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer in the island. The inhabitants are estimated at about five thousand.

BERMUDAS, OR SUMMER ISLANDS....These received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Islands, from Sir George Summers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They are situate at a vast distance from any continent, in thirty-two deg. north lat. and in sixty-five degrees west long. Their distance from the Land's End is computed to be near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina about 300. The Bermudas are but small, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided some time there, ex-

presses it, "walled with rocks." The air of these islands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always esteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions are perfectly delightful. Though the soil of these islands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief and only business of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000 in number, is the building and navigation of light sloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the West Indies. These vessels are as remarkable for their swiftness, as the cedar, of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality. The chief town is St. George's, in the island of the same name; it contains about 500 houses. Edwards states the whole population of the Bermudas at 10,381.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	Degrees.
Length	1321	between { 30° 30' and 49° 37' North Latitude. 67° and 97° 30' West Longitude.
Greatest breadth	1300	
Least do	620	

The superficial contents of the United States have not as yet been accurately ascertained. The calculation of Hutchins, so frequently referred to by geographical writers, was not of the United States, but of the British dominions in North America; which he estimated at 1,200,000 square miles. But this is evidently erroneous, as the author himself has since acknowledged. From the best data in our possession, the United States contain 1,050,900 square miles, equal to 677,614,400 acres.

BOUNDARIES.... They are bounded on the north by Upper and Lower Canada; on the east by New Brunswick and the Atlantic Ocean; on the south by East and West Florida and the Gulf of Mexico; and on the west by New Mexico and the Mississippi river, which latter separates them from the territory of Missouri.

The boundary line between the United States and the British and Spanish provinces in North America, as definitely specified in the treaty of Paris, begins at the mouth of the river St. Croix, in the Bay of Fundy, and runs along the middle of the river to its source; thence due north to the highlands, which divide the waters, falling into the Atlantic, from those which fall into the St. Lawrence; thence south-west along the highlands to the north-west source of the Connecticut river; thence along that river to the 45° N. lat.; thence due west, till it intersects the river St. Lawrence; thence through the middle of the St. Lawrence, the lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, Superior, and their connecting waters, to the north-west point of the Lake of the Woods; thence due west to the Mississippi; thence down the middle of that river, till it intersects the 31° N. lat.; thence due east along the said 31° N. lat. to the river Apalachicola; thence along the middle of the river to its junction with Flint river; thence directly to the source of St. Mary's river, and down it to its estuary at the Atlantic; comprehending all the islands within 20 leagues of the shores of the United States, excepting such as are or have been within the limits of Nova Scotia.*

* According to the above description of the boundary line, as delineated in the treaty of Paris, it is to pass from Lake Superior (what particular point of the lake is not specified), through the Lake of the Woods to the north-west point thereof, and thence due west till it strikes the river Mississippi. This must have been owing to the ignorance of the framers of that treaty, with respect to the relative positions of the Lake of the Woods and the sources of the Mississippi. For the north-west point of the former is, according to Mr. Thompson, astronomer to

DIVISIONS....The United States are generally comprised under three grand geographical divisions; the eastern or northern; the middle; and the southern states.

The eastern, commonly called the New England States, comprehend, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, (including the district of Maine) Rhode Island, and Connecticut. Whole population, 1,417,973.

The middle states are, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Ohio. Population, 2,318,136.

The southern states are, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Georgia, and Louisiana. Population, 3,304,788.

The territories are Missouri, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Mississippi, and the District of Columbia, containing 123,166 inhabitants.

The principal part of that portion of the United States, situated between lake Michigan and the river Mississippi, and extending northward to the British possessions, remains as yet in the possession of the native tribes.

Each state is divided into counties, and each county subdivided into townships or towns.

ASPECT OF THE COUNTRY....The vast ranges of mountains, which form a lofty rampart between the countries of the Atlantic and those of the western waters, appear like a succession of waves, rising one above another, in endless perspective. Here and there a solitary habitation of man may be seen, on their sides and summits, but generally speaking they are still covered with hoary and luxuriant forests, composed of the different species of oak, beech, maple, walnut, acasia, ash, plum, birch, sassafras, poplar, and several species of evergreens. Along the Atlantic, from Long Island to the river St. Mary's, extending from 150 to 200 miles in width, the face of the country exhibits gentle but irregular undulations, intersected by numerous creeks and rivers, and covered with oak, hickory, chesnut, &c. and also with forests of pines, firs, larches, cypress, and other resinous trees of unfading verdure. The shores of the Atlantic north-east of the Hudson, are high and rocky; and the adjacent states exhibit an aspect more rough, abrupt, and broken; particularly in those parts which lie back towards the mountains.

West of the Allegany mountains, opens upon the view, one of the

the North-west Company, who was sent expressly for the purpose of ascertaining their relative positions, in 1798—in lat. $49^{\circ} 37'$ north; and west long. $94^{\circ} 31'$;—and the highest source of the Mississippi in lat. $47^{\circ} 38'$ north, and west long. $95^{\circ} 06'$. The latter latitude has since been confirmed by Lieut. Col. Pike, who explored the Mississippi to its source, in the years 1805 and 1806; but he has said nothing about the longitude. If our information be correct, the boundary line of the United States, from the Lake of the Woods to the source of the Mississippi, instead of bearing due west must bear south $16^{\circ} 23'$ towards the west. The Lake of the Woods has no communication by water, with either Lake Superior or the Mississippi. Were the boundary line between the United States and the British dominions in North America, to follow the principal waters to their extremities, which seems to have been the intention of the treaty, it ought to pass through Lake Superior to the mouth of the river St. Louis, in lat. $46^{\circ} 45'$ north, and west long. $92^{\circ} 10'$; thence up the St. Louis to its source, from whence there is a portage of only $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the source of the Savannah River, falling into Lake de Sable, which last unites with the Mississippi in lat. 46° north. But this would entirely exclude the Lake of the Woods from the United States, and upwards of two thousand square miles of territory,—generally represented as inhospitable, barren, and consequently of little or no value.

most extensive, beautiful, and fertile plains in the world. Its elevations and depressions are just sufficient to give a gentle current to its numerous streams, which flow in all directions. The magnitude and luxuriance of its vast forests, indicate the strength and fertility of the soil. Along the northern shore of the Ohio, the surface is in some places a little broken, but the great body of this country is a low, flat plain, frequently inundated by freshes. Large natural meadows, called prairies or savannas, are seen extending many miles in circumference, and covered in spring and summer, with rank matted grass, variegated with a rich profusion of flowers. These abound from the Wabash to the Mississippi, and towards the borders of lake Erie. Along the great chain of lakes which form the northern boundary of the United States, the country wears a rougher and more dreary aspect, and exhibits fewer indications of richness and strength.

MOUNTAINS....The Allegany mountains, under different appellations, extend, in parallel ranges, from north-east to south-west through nearly the whole length of the United States. They originate in the province of Lower Canada, near the estuary of the St. Lawrence, and running up that river gradually diverge from it, and separate its tributary streams, from those flowing through New Brunswick and Maine, into the Atlantic. The principal range forms the frontier of the United States as far as New Hampshire. Here they turn to the south, and pass through Vermont, under the appellation of the Green Mountains, separating the waters of lakes Champlain and George, from Connecticut river. Though a small range continues, the same bearing through Massachusetts and Connecticut, towards the Atlantic, yet the principal one inclines to the west, and crosses the Hudson river, bearing the name of the Highlands, at West Point. Here they experience some little interruption. Above, however, the continuation proceeds from the western banks of Hudson river, to the Kaats Kill Mountains, and a range which furnishes the sources of the Delaware. From this place they branch off into several parallel ramifications, and, having incorporated themselves with the preceding chain, extend across the states of New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, Georgia, and terminate in the Mississippi territory. Their distance from the Atlantic still increases as they progress southward. In the different states they are known under various appellations, which will be noticed in their proper places. Cumberland mountain, the most westerly ridge, rises in Virginia, and passes in a circular direction, between the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers, towards the Ohio. In Georgia the principal range changes both its name and direction, running due west to the Mississippi, under the name of the Apalachian or Cherokee mountains, and dividing the waters of the Tennessee, from the streams falling into the gulf of Mexico. The most eastern chain, called the Blue ridge, which commences in the highlands at West Point, may be considered as a distinct range from what are properly called the Allegany mountains, till it reaches North Carolina, where it unites with a branch, diverging from those mountains, and becomes the principal range, passing through North Carolina, and part of Georgia.

The Allegany mountains, properly so called, extend upwards of 1000 miles in length, and vary from 200 to 60 miles in width. Some of the northern aborigines used to call them the Endless mountains. They divide the rivers flowing eastwardly into the Atlantic, from those which fall into the Ohio and Mississippi. The large rivers

in the eastern states run parallel with the mountains; but in the middle and southern states, on the Atlantic side, the principal rivers intersect the mountains nearly at right angles.

LAKES.... There are few scenes better calculated to inspire the mind with feelings and ideas of the grandeur and sublimity of nature, in her operations, than the contemplation of that prodigious chain of lakes, or inland seas, which forms the northern boundary of the United States. Though uniformly grand in her productions on this side of the globe, she seems, in the formation of these vast bodies of fresh water, to have put forth all her strength. They are not merely insulated bodies of water, but communicate with one another, in succession, and may be considered as the great fountains of the river St. Lawrence.

These lakes have no regular tides, and never freeze over. Some of the streams, however, by which they communicate with one another, are frozen over, during the severity of winter. We shall begin with *Lake Superior*, which, with its tributary streams, we view as the source of the great river St. Lawrence; and as we proceed along the lakes and their concatenating waters, we shall consider and describe them as appendages and continuations of that noble river. Lake Superior is the largest body of fresh water in the world. It is 400 miles in length, and 120 in breadth; and lies between $46^{\circ} 31'$ and $48^{\circ} 40'$ north lat., and 84° and $92^{\circ} 10''$ west long. Its circumference, including the meanderings of its various bays, has been estimated at 1200, 1500 and even 1600 miles. The waves of this lake, agitated by a storm, resemble those of the ocean, run as high, and its navigation is equally dangerous. It is often covered with fogs, especially when the wind is from the east, which, driven against the barren rocks on the N. and W. dissolve in torrents of rain. Its waters are clear, deep, and abound in a great variety of excellent fish, such as trout, sturgeon, pickeril, pike, red and white carp, black bass, herring, &c. The *tiscamany*, or white fish, which weighs from four to sixteen pounds, is of a very superior quality in these waters.

Imbosomed in Lake Superior, lie a large number of islands, two of which, Philip and Royal isles, are of considerable magnitude, and in the treaty of Paris they are particularly specified, as lying on the American side of the boundary line. The latter, situated near the N. W. shore of the lake is the largest, being 100 miles long and about 40 wide. There is a multitude of smaller islands, many of which are not yet fully explored. Copper is found in some of them, particularly those along the eastern coast of the lake. It was in the solitude of some of these islands, that the imaginations of the natives fixed the residence of the Great Spirit. On the south side of the lake is a large cape or promontory, extending 60 miles in length, and denominated point Shagoimigo or Chigomigan. From this point of land, eastward, the southern shore of the lake is an almost continued sandy beach, interspersed with rocky precipices of lime stone, rising sometimes to 100 feet in height, without a bay. The banks, in general, from the same point westward, on the south side of the lake, are of a strong clay, mixed with stones. Along the north shore of Lake Superior is the safest navigation, as it is a continued mountainous embankment of rock, varying from 300 to 1500 feet in height. There are also along this shore numerous coves and sandy bays, which are sheltered from the swell of the lake by islands, and afford commodious harbours and landing places.

About 40 tributary streams fall into this lake. The most considerable ones are the Nipigon from the north, the Michipicoton from the N. E., and the St. Louis from the west; to which may be added the Donagon from the south, not on account of its magnitude, but the abundance of virgin copper found on and near its banks.

The grand portage, in the rout to the Canadian fur depot, fort Chipewyan, is situated on the north side of Lake Superior in lat. 48° north, and long. 90° west. At the entrance of the bay is an island which screens the harbour from all winds, except the south. Vessels, owing to the shallowness of the water, are obliged to anchor nearly a mile from the shore. The bottom of the bay, which forms an amphitheatre, is cleared of wood and inclosed; and on the left corner of it, beneath a hill 300 or 400 feet high, and crowned by others of still greater altitude, is the fort, picketed in with cedar pallisadoes.

The aspect of the country bordering on Lake Superior is by no means promising. The rocks appear to have been over-run by fire, and the stunted trees that once grew there, are seen lying along their surface. Amongst this fallen timber, grow briars, hurtle-berries, goose-berries, rasp-berries, &c. which allure bears in great numbers. Beyond these rocky banks are found a few moose and fallow deer. The soil immediately on the confines of the lake has not proved very propitious to agricultural productions. Potatoes are the only article found worth cultivating. This barrenness is thought to be owing to the cold damp fogs of the lake, and the moisture of the ground, occasioned by the springs issuing from beneath the hills. There are however meadows in the vicinity of Lake Superior, that yield hay in abundance; and at a small distance from the shores, no doubt many species of grain might be cultivated to advantage, should serious attempts at agriculture ever be made.

The inhabitants found along the coasts of this lake are all of the Algonquin nation of Indians, and do not exceed 150 families. They live chiefly upon fish.

Not more than one-tenth part of the water, discharged into Lake Superior by its numerous rivers, passes out by any visible means; owing, it has been supposed, to the superabundant evaporation. The only outlet of this lake is from the S. E. corner, through St. Mary's river, which is about 70 miles long. Near its upper end is a rapid, which falls 25 feet in three-fourths of a mile, and which canoes may descend with skilful pilots, but which they cannot ascend. The prospect at this outlet of Lake Superior is one of the finest in the world; exhibiting on your right hand beautiful little isles extending a great distance ahead; and on your left a diversified succession of promontories, bays, creeks, &c. almost down to lake Huron.

Lake Huron, into which you enter through St. Mary's river, is the next in magnitude to Lake Superior. It is of a triangular form. It is 250 miles long, by 150 broad; and lies between $43^{\circ} 30'$ and $46^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, and 80° and $84^{\circ} 30'$ west longitude.

Its circumference is about 1000 miles. As you approach it, through the river St. Mary's its entrance is interspersed with a large cluster of Islands, the principal of which is St. Joseph's, 120 miles in circuit. The northern shore of this lake consists chiefly of rocky embankments, backed at some distance by highlands. The south-east shore is sterile, being composed of sand and small stones. The south-west

side of the lake presents immediately on the shore, the same aspect; but about a mile back of this commences a fine rich soil.

On the S. W. side of lake Huron lies Saganau bay, about 80 miles long, and varying from 18 to 20 in width. Thunder Bay, so denominated from the frequency of that awful phenomenon, accompanied by storms, lies about half way between Saganau Bay, and the north-east corner of the lake. Near the last bay the waters of lake Simcoe fall into Huron from the east. Some few of the Chippeway Indians live scattered round this part of Huron.

The islands of Lake Huron are numerous, and some of them large. The most important ones however lie without the limits of the United States. Of these, the chief is St. Joseph's, on which the British have had their most western military establishment, ever since the year 1794, at which time they surrendered, what were called the upper posts to the American government. To this post, many of the Indians of the North-Western Territory resort annually, for the purposes of trafficking with, and receiving presents from the British. Along the northern shore of this lake there is a chain of islands, called Manatoulin, signifying the place of spirits, which is held sacred by the Indians. Fort Michilimackinac stands upon an island of the same name, situated in the west corner of Lake Huron, near its communication with Lake Michigan. The island is seven miles in circumference. It abounds in excellent springs, and is high and healthy; rising all around gradually from the shores to the centre.* The fort is handsomely situated, and commands the harbour, which is a beautiful basin of water five or six fathoms deep, well sheltered from the winds. The village on this island contained in 1810 about 300 inhabitants, chiefly French Canadians; and a brisk trade was carried on with the neighbouring Indians. The export of furs was valued in 1804 at \$238,236, and the duties received on goods imported from the British possessions, amounted to \$60,000.

From the northern side of this Lake there is what the Canadians term a back passage, leading to Montreal; which may be denominated a part of the great high way of the fur trade. It commences in the mouth of French river, which falls into Lake Huron in lat. $45^{\circ} 53' N$. and passes up that river into Lake Nepissing; thence to the head of French river, where there is a portage of two miles, over the highlands, to the Utawas river; and thence down that river to its junction with the St. Lawrence, about ten miles above Montreal. This passage is interrupted by numerous rocks, cataracts and rapids, in both the Utawas and French rivers; the different portages amount to six miles. Along this rout pass and repass semi-annually between 350 and 400 persons, engaged in the fur trade.†

Lake Michigan. We now leave that range of lakes, constituting the boundary between the United States and Canada, and shall notice Michigan, which lies wholly within the jurisdiction of the former. This lake is 280 miles long, and from 60 to 70 broad, and lies between $42^{\circ} 10'$ and $46^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, and 85° and 87° west longitude. It is about 900 miles in circumference, and navigable for vessels of any burden. The islands are inconsiderable and lie chiefly in the

* It resembles a turtle's back, whence it derives its name, Michilimackinac, that is, Turtle.

† M'Kenzie's History of the Fur Trade.

north-east part of the lake. On the north-west side lies a large body of water, nearly parallel to, and communicating with it, the southern extremity of which is called Green Bay, and the northern Noquet's Bay. Michigan is separated from Lake Superior, by a sterile promontory 90 miles long and 24 wide, whose south-east extremity is called Detour. This lake abounds in a variety of excellent fish, particularly trout, weighing from 20 to 60 and even 90 pounds. Its tributary streams, the aspect of the adjacent country, soil, productions, inhabitants, &c. will be noticed when we come to treat of the Michigan and North West Territories.

Chicago or Dearborn fort, at which is an Indian factory belonging to the United States, is situated on the west side of Michigan, near its southern end; and is about 250 miles from Michilimackinac.

Lake Michigan communicates with, and discharges its waters into, Lake Huron, from its north-east corner, by the straits of Michilimackinac, which are six or seven miles wide. Huron, having now received the waters of lakes Superior and Michigan, discharges itself towards the south, through the river St. Clair (or Huron river) into a lake of the same name. St. Clair River is about forty miles long, and three-fourths of a mile wide. It is navigable for the largest vessels, except at its mouth, where there is a sand bar, rendering the depth of the water only six and a half feet. Its course is nearly south.

Lake St. Clair, situated nearly half way between lakes Huron and Erie, is about ninety miles in circumference. It is of an oval form, and navigable for large vessels. It receives the Thames, a considerable stream of Upper Canada, from the east, and Huron river from the west. This lake discharges its waters, through Detroit river, into lake Erie. It is generally closed by ice in winter.

Detroit river, on leaving lake St. Clair, takes a south-west direction about twelve miles to fort Detroit; thence its course is due south, till it falls into lake Erie. It is twenty-eight miles long, and from one to three wide. On this river stands fort Detroit, eighteen miles above lake Erie, which, with that of Michilimackinac, was erected, about 140 years ago, by the French, for the purpose of extending and securing their commerce with the Indians. At both these places are ports of entry, belonging to the Michigan territory. On the opposite side of the river, a little below fort Detroit, is Sandwich, a flourishing little village.

Lake Erie. This lake is bounded north by Upper Canada; west by the Michigan territory; south by the states of Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New-York; and east by New-York. It is 300 miles long, and 40 wide, and lies between 41° and 43° north latitude, and 79° and 84° west longitude from London. Its form is somewhat elliptical, its circumference about 700 miles, and its bearing from west-south-west to east-north-east. Its greatest depth is about 20 fathoms; but it is interspersed in many places with shoals. The bottom is generally composed of light yellowish sand, which being disturbed by storms, discolours the waters of the lake,—at other times beautifully clear and of a greenish cast. Fogs are seldom observed in summer on the margins of this lake. The sky is clear, and the stars shine with remarkable lustre.* The northern shore is low and rocky, and

* Mr. Ellicot.

for some distance back the country is elevated but little above the level of the lake. Its navigation is more dangerous than that of the other lakes, on account of craggy, perpendicular rocks, which project many miles from the northern shore, and afford no shelter from storms. From the Canada shore, a point of land projects several miles into the lake, in a direction south-east, called Long Point. The islands and banks towards the west end of the lake are said to be very much infested with rattle-snakes. The shores of the lake here are covered for miles around with the leaves of the large pond or water lily, on which, in the summer, myriads of water snakes may be seen.

On the northern shore of this lake stand two British fortifications, Malden and Erie; the one at its western, the other at its eastern, extremity. The latter is nearly opposite to Buffaloe, and two miles above Black Rock, which are on the American side. It is a strong stockade fort, containing a block house and barracks. Near the former (a stockade fort usually garrisoned by three or four hundred men) is a village of the same name, which contains about 100 houses, and carries on a considerable trade, chiefly in furs.

The southern side of lake Erie, immediately on the shore, is mostly a sandy beach, and the harbours are incommoded with bars of sand. Back of this sandy beach the country rises, in many places precipitately, sometimes abruptly, exhibiting immense ranges of perpendicular rocks, (as at Cayuga) over which pass the streams, falling into the lake, forming numerous beautiful cascades.

From the west and south, several considerable rivers discharge themselves into this lake. Its chief tributaries are the Miami, on which fort Meigs is situated; the Sandusky, whose bay forms the best harbour on the lake, but of difficult entrance; the Cayuga, at whose mouth is the village of Cleveland, Grand river, Cattaragus, and others, which will be noticed hereafter.

The bearing of the Niagara river, from lake Erie to the falls, is west of north; thence to lake Ontario, due north. The length, including its meanderings, is between thirty and thirty-five miles. Above the falls it imbosoms Grand and Navy islands, both within the jurisdiction of New York. The former is nearly six miles long, and three wide. On the west side of this river are the forts Erie and George; and the villages of Chippeway, Queenstown and Newark. Reserving our description of the falls for a future article, we proceed to lake Ontario.

Ontario, the most eastern of that extensive range of lakes, separating the United States from the British provinces, is bounded N. by Upper Canada, W. and S. by the same province and New York, and E. by New York. It is 160 miles long, and from 60 to 70 wide, and lies between 43° and 45° north latitude, and 76° and 30° west longitude. Its form resembles that of an ellipsis, and its circumference has been variously estimated at from 450 to 600 miles. Its shores are precipitous, and covered principally with beech trees, but as you recede from them on the south side, you enter a fine country, which extends from Niagara river, parallel with lake Ontario, to its eastern extremity. This region is diversified with elevations and depressions, spacious alluvial vales, and uplands of a warm, moist, and black soil, with innumerable small lakes, streams, and springs. The Genesee, Oneida, Oswego, and Black rivers, with a multitude more, pass through this country, and fall into Ontario.

Oswego, a village situated on the east side, near the estuary of the river, from which it takes its name, contains about thirty houses. It is a port of entry, and in 1809, above half a million of merchandize was shipped here. On the opposite shore of the river, stands Oswego fort, which, though possessing a commanding position, is in a state of decay and ruin.

Sackets Harbour, situated on the south side of Black river bay, at the east end of Ontario, and sixteen miles from the river St. Lawrence, is a port of entry, contains upwards of 500 inhabitants, and is rapidly increasing. The harbour is the best on lake Ontario. On the west side is a peninsula of rock which affords secure shelter from the north-west. The banks fronting the harbour, from the land side, are about thirty feet high. Near Sackets Harbour are numerous bays, the chief of which is Charmont Bay, about fifteen miles in circuit. It is the best fishing place on Ontario, and many hundred barrels of fish, caught here, are put up annually.

The only river of any note falling into Ontario from the north, is the Trent, which empties into Quinti bay. This bay is a long narrow harbour, formed by a large peninsula, extending eastward from the shore of the lake.

RIVERS....Whether considered with respect to the quantity of water it pours into the ocean, or the extent of territory it pervades, the *Mississippi* is second to no river on the globe, except the Amazon, of South America. Its fountain head is amongst a cluster of small lakes in latitude 47° 38' N. and its mouth at the Gulf of Mexico, in lat. 29° N. Its confluent streams, embrace about 45 degrees of longitude, pervading all that vast plain, bounded westwardly by the Snow and Rocky mountains, bordering on the Pacific Ocean, and eastwardly by the western ranges of the Alleganies. Through all this region, which, on account of the salubrity of its climate, and the fertility of its soil, promises to become, at no distant period, the hive of American population, and the inexhaustible granary of the surrounding world, this noble river, and its tributaries, offer a thousand channels, in all directions, for inland navigation, and civil intercourse. So profoundly were the imaginations of the aborigines impressed with the vast extent of its ramifications, the immense fountains which supply its ever rolling tide, and the increasing majesty with which it advances towards the ocean, that they conferred on this river the distinguished appellation of *Mechassipi*; a term, compounded of two Indian words, *Meacht Chassipi*, signifying the ancient father of waters.

The general bearing of the Mississippi is about eighteen degrees east of south. Its principal branch issues from Upper Cedar lake, on whose north-east margin, the Canadians have a trading house and fort. Thence it pursues a circuitous route to lake Winepec; thence south twenty-four miles, where it receives a rival stream, issuing from Leech lake, in the neighbourhood of Upper Cedar Lake; thence north of east six miles; thence to lake de Sable its bearing is nearly south. In this last distance there are two considerable rapids. That of Pakagama is the largest. The descent is down a flat rock, whose declination makes an angle of 30° with the horizon. The fall is twenty feet, and the portage on the east side 200 yards. The face of the country, so far, wears the appearance of a boundless morass, interspersed with lakes and savannas. The surface of the soil is scarcely elevated above that of the level of the lakes and rivers. The winter here is long, and intensely cold, the rivers and lakes being frozen

over the greater part of the year. Lake de Sable is about twenty-five miles in circumference. It receives a number of streams, one of which alone deserves notice. This is the river Savannah, whose source is less than four miles from that of the river St. Louis, which, as before noticed, falls into lake Superior. It is through this channel that the North-West Company convey all the merchandize destined for the trade of the Upper Mississippi.

From lake de Sable to the river de Corbean, the bearing of the Mississippi is south-west. It receives several streams, but none of much importance. The shores of the river present a dreary prospect, of high barren knobs, covered with fallen pines. Back of these the country is still chequered with swamps and clusters of small lakes, bordered with lynn, elm, oak, and ash. The river de Corbean is nearly as large as the main stream of the Mississippi, and is said to be navigable upwards of 200 miles. From their junction, the bearing of the Mississippi is south-east, to the falls of St. Anthony. The river now begins to increase in magnitude, and the adjacent country to wear a more hospitable aspect. Its navigation is rendered laborious by numerous rapids, some of which extend several miles; but the falls of St. Anthony are the principal obstruction to the navigation of this river. They are in lat. 45° where the river is about 250 yards wide.

The perpendicular fall is sixteen feet and a half, and the whole descent, including the rapids below, is fifty-eight feet. Viewed at a distance from below they appear much higher than they actually are, which may account for the exaggerations of Hennepin, Carver, and other travellers respecting their altitude.

Just below the falls, and in the verge of the rapids, is a little island, particularly mentioned by almost all who have travelled this way. It contains about two acres, covered with stately oaks, in whose boughs a multitude of eagles annually build their nests, secure alike from the depredations of man and beast.

Below the falls the Mississippi still continues a south-east course, receiving in succession the river St. Peters from the west, and from the east, the rivers St. Croix, Chippeway, and numerous inferior streams. Bending its course towards the south, it receives in lat. about 43° , the Ouisconsin, which communicates by a portage of a mile and a half with Fox river, falling into lake Michigan. The bearing of the river continues a little east of south, till it intersects the 42° of north latitude; thence south, to the 39th, receiving the Stony river from the east, and the river Moin from the west. Its course now becomes nearly east. Here the Illinois pours its tribute from the north-east, and just below from the west, its great rival, the Missouri enters, in lat. $38^{\circ} 55' N.$ and $89^{\circ} 58' W.$ long. Their confluence is more than 1600 miles from the source of the Mississippi, and 1395 from its estuary at the Gulf of Mexico. From the falls to its junction with the Missouri, a distance of 1030 miles, it imbosoms a great number of small islands, and in many places the navigation is rendered laborious and difficult, in consequence of sand bars, rapids, &c. The surrounding country gradually assumes a more mild and inviting aspect, and exhibits more signs of fertility. The predominant appearance of the surface is that of prairies or savannas. These vast natural meadows, bound upon the banks, in many places, and in others, they are seen at intervals, through the narrow groves of lofty timber, that embroider the margin of the river. In some few places there

are high banks, bluffs, and hills, but no mountains are seen in all this distance. The shores are principally inhabited by various tribes of the aborigines, who claim the soil, and live chiefly by hunting and fishing. Besides these, the British have, above the falls of St. Anthony, several trading establishments, some of which are within the jurisdiction of the United States; and below the falls the Americans have some small settlements, which shall be noticed hereafter.

The Mississippi, which, before its junction with the Missouri, was clear and transparent, now assumes a muddy cast. In appearance it seems little or no larger, after the tribute of the rivers Illinois and Missouri; but its channel becomes much deeper, and it is more rapid. From the mouth of the Missouri, to that of the Ohio, a distance of 193 miles, its bearing is nearly south-east. On its west banks are situated St. Louis, the capital of Upper Louisiana, and St. Genivieve, the former fourteen, and the latter eighty-seven miles below its confluence with the Missouri. From the north-east, sixteen miles below the last village, it receives the river Kaskaskias.

The width of the Mississippi is but little increased by the waters of the Ohio, but the channel deepens from fifteen to twenty-five feet. The course of the river now becomes exceedingly serpentine, and is interspersed with numerous islands. The appearance of the surrounding country is considerably changed. Vegetation is no longer checked by the severity of the climate. The shores as far down as Point Coupee, a distance of nine hundred miles, are covered with thick forests of heavy timber, rendered almost impenetrable by the closeness of the underwood. On the western shore, 70 miles below the Ohio, stands New Madrid, pleasantly situated, on a rich soil. On the same side, 33 miles lower down, is a settlement, two miles long, called Little Prairie. The Chickasaw bluffs commence 176 miles below the Ohio, on the eastern shore, and are four in number. The last is distant 65 miles from the first, and terminates just below the mouth of Wolf river. They rise from 60 to 150 feet above the surface of the water. At their lower extremity, in a commanding situation, stands fort Pickering. On the western side, about 65 miles lower down, comes in the river St. Francis. Six miles below, is a beautiful natural meadow, called the Big Prairie. At a small distance from the river, in this prairie, is a fine lake, five miles long, and three wide; it abounds with swan, and discharges its water into the river, by a large bayau. About 85 miles below, enters White river on the same side; and about 20 miles further, comes in the Arkansas. 210 miles below the Arkansas, the Yazoo river enters on the eastern side. Twelve miles further down are Walnut hills; about 24 miles below which, on the same side, commences the Palmira, a flourishing settlement, extending about eight miles down the river. The distance from the walnut hills to Natchez is about 120 miles. About 50 miles below Natchez are Loftus' Heights. Fort Adams is on the side of these heights, about one third of the way up; four miles below which, is the southern boundary line of Mississippi Territory. At a small distance below the line, the river turns short, and forms a large bend to the westward. At the extremity of this curve, Red river enters. Three miles below, on this bend, the bayau Chaffalio runs out with great rapidity, and is the first stream which leaves the Mississippi, and falls, by a separate channel, into the Gulf of Mexico. The bend is continued until it forms a semicircle; the river then tends southward some distance, then winding round to the eastward and north-

ward, runs back in a direction nearly opposite to its general course, until it comes within five or six miles of the line, below which the bend first commenced. After another considerable curve to the westward, we arrive at Point Coupee; about 15 miles above which, on the eastern shore, is, Tunica village, handsomely situated, and extending about twelve miles along the river. Point Coupee is a fine settlement twenty miles in length. Here commences the embankment or Levee, on the western side of the river, which is continued to New-Orleans, a distance of about 170 miles. On the side of this bank, is a range of handsome, neatly built houses, appearing like a continued village to New-Orleans. The groves of orange and fig-trees are numerous, and the scenery is altogether very fine. Baton Rouge, a flourishing settlement, is about thirty miles below Point Coupee, on the eastern side of the river. Here a Levee, similar to that on the western side, commences and extends to New-Orleans. Baton Rouge continues about 20 miles down the river, and to a considerable distance back. About fifteen miles further down, on the same side, is the river Iberville, which forms a considerable outlet from the Mississippi, when the water is high. At the point below the Iberville, the Mississippi turns short to the westward, forming a large bend. At the western extremity of this bend, is an outlet, discharging into the sea, called bayau Plaquemine. The bayau la Fourche, on the same side, is thirty miles further down, following the meanders of the river, and eighty miles above New-Orleans. The course of the river is now nearly south-east, and much more direct to the city. Opposite New-Orleans it is about a mile and a half wide, and runs with a pretty strong current. The distance, from the city to the mouth of the river, is about one hundred and eight miles. The surrounding country is low and swampy. Fifteen miles below the city, is a settlement called St. Bernardo. From this, to fort Plaquemines, forty-eight miles, the land is a morass, almost impassable for man or beast, and overflowed for several months in the year. From Plaquemines to the Passes is 24 miles, where the river branches into three parts. From these branches to the sea, it is about twenty miles, and the land has the appearance of a vastly extended marsh, covered with long grass. The East Pass, at the distance of six miles, divides into two branches. The eastern is called Pass a la Loutre, and the other Belize. On the Belize is a small block house. There are very narrow sand bars without the mouths of the passes. Large ships enter by the Belize, there being the greatest depth of water on the bar. The south pass, which runs most direct to the sea, is almost choked up with drift wood. The west pass, which is the longest and narrowest, and used to be the passage by which large ships entered the river, had some years ago eighteen feet, but is now said to be reduced to only eight feet of water on the bar. Immediately after passing the bars the water deepens to six or seven fathoms.

There are various impediments to the navigation of the Mississippi, the most considerable of which are what are called *planters* and *sawyers*. *Planters* are the trunks of trees, firmly fixed in the bed of the river. Sometimes they are perpendicular, but generally inclined. When elevated above the surface, they are easily avoided, but when their points are covered by a few feet of water, which is frequently the case, they are very dangerous. *Sawyers* are trees loosely held by their roots, to the bottom of the river. These rise and fall with the current, at regular intervals.

Next to the Mississippi the *Ohio* is the largest river of the United

States. It is formed by the junction of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers at Pittsburg in Pennsylvania. It flows through a beautiful and fruitful country, and falls into the Mississippi in $36^{\circ} 43'$ north latitude. Its shores are dry and healthy, and covered with numerous and flourishing settlements. Following the windings, which are numerous, its length has been computed at 1033 miles. In its course it receives the waters of the Muskingum, Kenhawa, Sandy, Sciota, Miami, Kentucky, Wabash, Licking, Tennessee, Cumberland and Green rivers, with numerous smaller streams. Its navigation is frequently interrupted by rich and well timbered islands. The greatest impediment, however, to the navigation of the Ohio, are the falls just below Louisville. A lock canal, in this place, would be of immense value to the Ohio trade. Its greatest breadth, which is at Louisville, is 1200 yards. At Pittsburg it is 440 yards wide, and at its mouth 900. The average width is about 600 yards.

The *Connecticut* is the most considerable river of New England. Its course is rapid and interrupted by numerous falls. It takes its rise on the borders of Lower Canada, and pursuing a southwardly course, forms the boundary line between the states of Vermont and New Hampshire. It then passes through Massachusetts and Connecticut; and discharges into Long Island sound, after running a course of 410 miles.

The *Delaware* called by the Aborigines Poutaxat, rises among the mountains in the south-east part of the state of New-York. It divides the states of Pennsylvania and New-Jersey, and runs nearly in a southwardly direction, to the bay of Delaware; where it unites with the Atlantic Ocean. The tide flows about one hundred and thirty miles, or to Trenton falls, thirty miles above Philadelphia, rising about 6 feet with a common flood. At the city it is a mile wide, and navigable by ships of 1200 tons burden; but above Trenton it is only passable by flat bottomed boats. The length of the Delaware to the bay is three hundred miles, from thence to the capes the distance is sixty-five miles.

The northern branch of the *Potomac* rises among the Alleghany mountains, and forms the boundary line between the states of Maryland and Virginia. It runs north-east one hundred and forty miles to Cumberland, where it approaches within a few miles of the Pennsylvania line. Thence it pursues a south-east direction to near Old town, where it unites with the south branch, which has its source in Pendleton county, Virginia, upwards of one hundred miles from the union. Thence it again runs north-east to its most northwardly point, which is about four miles south of the Pennsylvania line. Thence its course is south-east to the Chesapeake, which it enters in lat. 38° north. The tide runs three miles above the city of Washington. Between Cumberland and Washington there are five falls or rapids, the most considerable of which are 15 miles above the city, and fall seventy-six feet. At its junction with the Shenandoah, the river passes with considerable rapidity through the Blue mountain, which is there more than one thousand feet in height. Canals have been cut round all the falls.

The *Roanoke* is formed by the union of the Staunton and Dan rivers, twelve miles from the southern boundary of Virginia. The Staunton rises among the Alleghany mountains, in Montgomery county, Virginia. Its course is south-east one hundred and ten miles, till its junction with the Dan. The latter rises among the same mountains, in Patrick county, in the same state. It runs south 17 miles, when it enters North Carolina. In its course, it crosses the boundary line, between the two states, in eight different places. After passing it at

Milton, its direction is north-east near fifty miles till it meets the Staunton. The general course of the Roanoke is south-east, and it discharges into the south-west end of Albemarle Sound, in north latitude $35^{\circ} 53'$. Its whole length is about one hundred and fifty miles, thirty-six of which it runs in Virginia, and the remainder in North Carolina. It is navigable sixty miles, for small vessels.

A number of small streams rising in the Alleghany mountains, near the southern boundary line of Virginia, and uniting ten miles east of Rockford, in North Carolina, form the river *Pedee*, which for the first sixty miles of its course, is called the Yadkin. It runs in a south-east direction, through North Carolina, and the north-east part of South Carolina, to latitude $33^{\circ} 20'$ north, where it discharges into the Atlantic. Its free navigation extends from the sea to Greenville, one hundred and thirty miles, for vessels of seventy tons, and from thence to Chatham, twenty miles higher, for boats of lesser draught. Here the navigation is impeded by rocks and shallows, which, however, can be passed when the water is high, and it is supposed could be removed altogether, without much difficulty. The most serious impediment, to the navigation of this river, are the narrows, eighty miles above Chatham, near which boats are obliged to be discharged, and the merchandize conveyed round them in waggon. Above, boats may pass near one hundred and twenty miles. The length of the *Pedee* exceeds three hundred and seventy miles.

The *Santee* is formed by the union of the Congaree and Wateree rivers, in South Carolina. The sources of both these streams are in the Alleghany mountains, not far from those of the Tennessee and Kenhawa. The Wateree, in North Carolina, is called the Catawba. The Congaree is formed by a junction of Broad and Saluda rivers. Broad river unites in its stream, the Enoree, the Tyger, and the Pacolet, after which, it becomes a component part of the Congaree; which last, uniting with the Wateree, takes the name of Santee. The navigation of this river extends to the fork, and thence up the Wateree, to Cambden, forty miles, on one side, and up the Congaree, to Granby, thirty-five miles, on the other, for boats of seventy tons. At these places the falls and rapids of the rivers commence. They are however frequently navigable for boats many miles higher. The general course of the Wateree is a little east of south. Its length is about two hundred and twenty miles, one half of which is in North Carolina. The Congaree runs south-east two hundred miles. The length of the Santee, from the forks to Winyaw bay, into which it discharges, is about one hundred and ten miles. It is connected with Cooper river, by a canal twenty-two miles long.

The *Savannah* rises in the south-west corner of North Carolina, and forms the boundary between South Carolina and Georgia. Its channel is bold and deep, and its navigation extends to Augusta, seventy miles, for vessels of seventy tons. At this place the navigation is interrupted by falls. Boats of thirty tons, pass sixty miles higher, to Vienna.

The *Apalachicola* or *Chatahouchy*, has its source in the northern part of Georgia, not far from that of the Savannah. It runs south-west about two hundred miles, when it is met by the boundary line between Georgia and the Mississippi Territory. Hence its direction is nearly south. It separates Georgia from the Mississippi Territory to the southern boundary of the latter. It then has Georgia on the east and West Florida on the west for about thirty miles. Thence to the Gulf of Mexico, it forms the boundary between the two Floridas.

It discharges into Appalachee bay by several mouths. Its course is generally through an unsettled country, and little attention has been paid to its navigation.

The *Mobile* is formed of two branches; the Tombecbee and the Alabama. The Tombecbee rises in the northern part of Mississippi territory, in about lat. $34^{\circ} 30'$ north. The general direction of this river is south. Its course is very serpentine, and its length near 400 miles. It is navigable for sloops to fort Stephens, 60 miles from its union with the Alabama. The latter has its source in a number of small streams, flowing from the mountains in the northern part of Georgia. The Estenaullee and High rivers, uniting in lat. 34° form the Coosa. The latter runs south-west 200 miles, when it is joined by the Tallipoosee. The two streams united form the Alabama. This river flows south-west 150 miles, to its union with the Tombecbee. The length of the Mobile is 40 miles south. It enters Mobile bay, at the town of Mobile in lat. $30^{\circ} 30'$.

The *Pascacoola* enters the gulf of Mexico, 40 miles west of the Mobile. It is a small river formed of two streams, which rise near, and run 150 miles parallel to each other, at the distance of from two to fifteen miles. The length of the Pascacoola, from the forks, is about 110 miles.

The *Pearl* is about the same size with the Pascacoola. It empties into the gulf of Mexico, near lake Pontchartrain.

Red River rises in Missouri Territory, in about lat. $35^{\circ} 45'$ north. It runs nearly south 200 miles, when in lat. 33° it enters the state of Louisiana. Hence its general course is south-east to the Mississippi, which it enters nearly opposite, and about nine miles west of the southern boundary of the Mississippi Territory, and, following the windings of the river, 243 miles above New-Orleans. The distance from its mouth, to the point at which it enters Louisiana, in a direct line, is 150 miles, but owing to its continued windings, the length of the river, in that distance, cannot be less than 300. This stream is used to communicate with New Mexico. On its banks are the settlements of Rapide, Avoyelles and Natchitoches. The latter is upwards of 200 miles from the mouth of the river. The name Red river, is derived from the reddish appearance of the water, caused by some earthy impregnation, tinged probably with iron. About 300 miles above Natchitoches the navigation is opposed by a very serious obstacle. This is a covering which conceals the whole river for about seventeen leagues, and which was originally formed, and is continually augmented by drift wood. It is covered with soil and overgrown with trees and underwood.

The *Ouachitta*, or Black river, rises south-east of Red river. Its general course is a little east of south, and its length about 650 miles. It falls into Red river, 23 miles from the Mississippi. Two hundred miles from its mouth, in lat. $30^{\circ} 30'$ stands fort Miro, the out post of the United States in that quarter, although there are settlements still higher. It is navigable for boats a distance of 600 miles, to where it forks.

The *Buffaloe*, is a branch of Black river. It rises near the latter, and discharges into it, 100 miles above its mouth. A considerable Indian trade is carried on, by means of this, Red and Black rivers.

The *Illinois* rises 30 miles south-east of lake Michigan in Indiana territory. It interlocks by a portage of four miles with the St. Joseph or Chicagow, a small river which empties into lake Michigan. The Illinois winds a distance of near 600 miles, through a fine country,

from which it receives numerous tributary streams. Its course is nearly west, till it enters Illinois territory, and for eighty miles beyond the boundary line. Thence its direction is about one and a half degrees west of south. It enters the Mississippi 20 miles above the mouth of the Missouri. It is navigable for boats 450 miles. The banks are high and the water clear. It contains a number of islands, some of which are 10 miles in length.

The *Tennessee*, called also the Cherokee, is the largest branch of the Ohio, and after the Mississippi and Ohio, it is the longest river of the United States. It rises among the mountains in the north-west corner of South Carolina, and immediately enters North Carolina, through which it flows in a north-west direction 50 miles, into Tennessee. Thence its course is a little north of west 150 miles, when it is joined by the Holston. At Kingston, 40 miles further, it unites with the Clinch. It now turns to the south-west, and flowing 150 miles, in that direction, enters the Mississippi territory, touching for a short distance on Georgia. Just above the boundary line is the suck or whirl, where the river passes through the Cumberland mountain. Here the stream is suddenly contracted from the width of 800 to that of 70 yards. A rock, projecting from the northern shore, propels the water to the opposite side with considerable force, whence it is again thrown back upon the rock, and driven round with great velocity. From the suck the direction of the river is south-west 50 miles, to its most southwardly point. It now wheels about to the north-west, and flows 70 miles to the Muscle shoals. The stream is here expanded to the width of from three to five miles, and is full of rocks and small islands. When the water is low, the navigation is difficult. From the Muscle shoals, which are 40 miles in length, the river runs a little south of west 30 miles, then turning to the north-west at the distance of 35 miles, it again enters Tennessee. Its general course through Tennessee is north 180 miles. It enters Kentucky in lat. $36^{\circ} 30'$ and mingles with the Ohio in lat. 37° , 57 miles from its mouth. The whole length of this river is supposed to exceed 1000 miles. Vessels of considerable burden can ascend to the Muscle shoals, and it is navigable for boats of 40 tons to the mouth of the Holston.

The *Cumberland* rises among the Cumberland mountains, near the south-west borders of Kentucky. It flows in a south-west direction, parallel to the mountains, into Tennessee, where it runs, nearly west, about 30 miles. Then turning to the north, it re-enters Kentucky, and forming a semicircle of about 70 miles, it again passes into Tennessee. It now flows south-west 75 miles. Thence its direction is nearly west to Nashville. From Nashville, its general course is a little west of north to its mouth. It enters the Ohio 12 miles above the Tennessee. The navigation is clear 200 miles above Nashville, whence, vessels of 400 tons have descended in times of floods. For boats, it is navigable above Nashville to the Kentucky line. Its whole length is about 600 miles.

CANALS AND INLAND NAVIGATION....There are few countries which have so fine a natural inland navigation as the United States. The rivers emptying into the Atlantic, on the east, the Mississippi on the west, the gulf of Mexico on the south, and the St. Lawrence and lakes on the north, are many of them navigable to within a short distance of their sources. - Rising near each other, in the centre of the country, their union would, in many places, by means of turnpikes and improvements in their navigation, be extremely easy. The inhabitants of the United States, have as yet, paid but little attention to the con-

struction of canals. Companies have existed for a number of years, in different parts of the union; but they have not met with encouragement sufficient, to enable them to execute any works of much consequence. Such canals as have been completed, will be noticed in the respective states in which they are found.

The labour of a few years would open a complete inland water communication, from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to that of the Mississippi. The principal impediments are, the rapids in the St. Lawrence, between Lake Ontario and Montreal, the falls of Niagara and St. Mary's, and the portages between the lakes, and the eastern branches of the Mississippi. There are six different points at which the Illinois might be connected with Lake Michigan. One of them would require a canal of but one mile in length. At another the distance is but two miles. At three of the other places, the portages are about three miles, and at the other four. In several of these distances, the land is so low as to be inundated annually by the spring floods, at which period boats have passed from Lake Michigan to the Mississippi. Around the falls of St. Mary's, a canal has already been constructed on the British side. One of ten miles extent would be required round those of Niagara.

Four canals, whose whole length would be near 100 miles, would insure an inland navigation, from Boston to the river St. Mary's. The first of these between Boston harbour, and the head of the river Taunton, would be 26 miles in length, and would cost 1,250,000 dollars. The second, in a direct line, would be 26 miles. If it should pass round the "Sand hills," west of New Brunswick, the distance would be increased to twenty-eight miles. It is estimated the cost of this would be \$800,000. The length of the third, from Christianna creek, to Elk river, would be 22 miles. A company, incorporated by the states of Delaware and Maryland, for opening this canal, has commenced its operations, now suspended for want of funds. The expenses are estimated at \$850,000. A company, incorporated by the states of Virginia and North Carolina, for opening the fourth canal, through the Dismal swamp, has made considerable progress in the work. It extends 22 miles, from a branch of Elizabeth to a branch of Pasquotank river, an arm of Albemarle sound. The cost is estimated at \$250,000.*

A company, incorporated by the legislature of New York, has commenced the construction of a canal, which is intended to unite the waters of the river Hudson with those of lake Ontario. The length of this canal, when completed, will be 300 miles, and the expence is estimated at \$5,000,000. Its effect will be to divert the trade of lake Ontario from Montreal to New-York. A company has also been formed for the purpose of uniting lake Champlain to the Hudson, but it has not succeeded for want of funds. A plan has also been in contemplation, for a number of years, to unite the rivers Susquehannah and Delaware, in Pennsylvania, and a company for the purpose, was formed. After expending considerable sums, want of funds has obliged them to suspend their operations.

The attention of the inhabitants of Tennessee, has lately been turned to the formation of a water communication between the rivers Tennessee and Tombeckee. No particular plan has, however, been as yet matured, nor any company formed. The length of the canal would be about eighteen miles.

* Report of the Secretary of the treasury to the Senate of the United States.

MINERALOGY....Until within a few years past little attention had been bestowed on this interesting subject, in the United States, which gave rise to an opinion that the country was unproductive of the useful metals and other minerals met with in Europe; but recent discoveries, resulting from a spirit of enterprise and a taste for the science, progressively excited in various parts of the country, prove that most of the transatlantic minerals are to be found in the United States.

Gold has been found in a small stream in Cabarras county, North Carolina, in pieces of various sizes, one of which weighed 28 lbs. It has also been found in Virginia in small quantities. Native copper occurs in New-Jersey, Pennsylvania and Virginia, and copper pyrites, malachite and other ores in different parts of Pennsylvania. Near the confluence of the rivers Passaic and Hackinsack, in New-Jersey, there is a mine of this metal which was formerly worked to considerable advantage.

The United States abounds in excellent *iron ore*, mines of which are opened in many of the states. In the alluvial soil of New-Jersey the swamp ore is very abundant, and a number of furnaces, forges, &c. are established for the manufacture of bar iron, hollow ware, stoves, &c.; this ore is frequently mixed with the mountain ore, quantities of which are transported by boats down the Delaware, from Easton in Pennsylvania.

There is now in the city of New-York, a mass of native malleable iron, weighing about 3000 pounds, which was found a few years past in Louisiana.

Lead is found on the Perkiomen creek, near its junction with the Schuylkill, and on the Conestoga creek, near Lancaster, in Pennsylvania—on the great Kanhawa river in Virginia—in the Illinois territory, and very extensively in Upper Louisiana—at Northampton in Massachusetts, and in the state of Vermont.

Zinc occurs in several parts of Pennsylvania, and in New-Jersey; in the latter place, the ore, which is a red oxyd, contains about 76 per cent. of pure metal.

Bismuth is found in Connecticut.

Titanium is met with in Massachusetts, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia.

Chrome is found in very great quantities in the vicinity of Baltimore. It is combined in the state of an acid with iron. A beautiful yellow pigment, known by the name of chromic yellow, has been made from the ore.

Molybdena is found in several of the states.

Plumbago, or black lead, of excellent quality, is found in Bucks county, Pennsylvania, and in New-York. There are several manufactories of black lead pencils, established in Philadelphia.

Amber is met with in several parts of west New-Jersey. In Burlington county, it occurs in a black stratum, consisting of carbonated wood and leaves, mixed with clay, and covered with sand and common mould—in the clay, nodules of shining pyrites are frequently imbedded.

The amber is found generally in very small pieces, of various colours; some few specimens have been obtained of considerable magnitude.

Coal. Immense quantities of this highly useful article are distributed through the earth in several parts of the United States. The

principal mines are those on James River, in Virginia; on the Schuylkill, near Orwicksburg, in Berks county; near the Lehigh river, in Northampton county, Pennsylvania; and near Newport, in Rhode-Island.

Gypsum, or Plaster of Paris, of an excellent quality, has lately been found on the Cayuga and Seneca lakes, in the state of New-York.

In Montgomery county, Pennsylvania, *Marble* of various colours, has been quarried for a number of years—It is also found at Stockbridge, in Massachusetts, at Harper's ferry, in Virginia—and in Connecticut and New-York.

Slate is quarried on the banks of the Delaware, in Wayne county, Pennsylvania, about 75 miles from Philadelphia, and is extensively used for the roofing of houses in that city and its vicinity—and for writing slates. It is also found in Dutchess county, New-York.

Soap Stone occurs on the Schuylkill, about ten miles above Philadelphia, and in the states of New-Hampshire and South-Carolina—And *Serpentine* of a very beautiful green colour and compact structure, is found at Newbury, in Massachusetts, and near New-Haven, in Connecticut. It is of the variety called Noble serpentine. Fine specimens of asbestos, or cotton stone, of a silky lustre, are frequently found with it.

Among the precious stones which have been found in the United States, may be enumerated, *zircons*, *beryls*, *cryso-beryls*, *amethysts*, *rock crystals*, *tourmalines* of various colours, as yellow, green, blue, and black; *garnets*, some of which are very large, *agates*, *carnelians*, and *jaspers*, together with many other curious and interesting mineral productions; as actynolite, tremolite, crystallized feldspar, and mica or isinglass, sulphat of barytes, phosphat of lime, fluat of lime, strontites, zeolite, talc, kyanite, umber, excellent clay, ochres of various descriptions, &c. &c.

MINERAL WATERS.... These are numerous in the different states. The springs most frequented, are those of Ballstown and Saratoga, in New-York, the hot springs at Bath, Virginia, and sweet springs in Botetourt county, in the same state. These will be more particularly noticed in their respective states.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.... No country of the same extent, exhibits a greater variety in the temperature of its climate, than the United States. In winter, it is much colder, than the correspondent latitudes of Europe. But its most striking and characteristic feature, is its frequent and sudden transitions from heat to cold, and *vice versa*.

In 24 hours, February, 1778, the mercury fell $41\frac{1}{2}$ degrees. It frequently in summer, stands at 86, and even 90 degrees during the day, and in the course of the ensuing night falls to 65, or even 60. These sudden transitions occur particularly after storms of rain and thunder: after one of these, in the summer of 1775, the mercury fell 20 degrees, in $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours. These changes are confined to no particular seasons of the year. They are more frequent in the Atlantic states, than those west of the Alleghany mountains. In South-Carolina and Georgia, the mercury rises to 106 degrees in the shade—in the middle states to 95 or 96, and in the eastern to 91 or 92 degrees, and sometimes falls 20 and 21 degrees below 0.

In impressing this changeable and multiform character upon the climate, some of the following circumstances may have no inconsiderable influence.

North-west of the great lakes of Canada, lie vast, uncultivated frozen regions. From these blows the north-west, one current of the three great prevailing winds of the United States, more especially in the winter. It is cold, dry and elastic, and not unfrequently violent and tempestuous. Along the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, it is often the harbinger of rain in the winter, and of storms in the summer. The mortar and plaister on walls subjected to its action, are harder and more difficult to demolish than those of any other exposure. In an opposite direction, from the atlantic ocean, blow the east, or rather south-east winds, which frequently contend with those from the north-west for the dominion of the atmosphere; and these conflicts produce in part, the sudden transitions from cold to heat, and the reverse already noticed. These winds are light and warm, and produce frequent thaws in winter. In the middle and southern states, they often prove destructive to the fruit trees, by awakening the power of vegetation prematurely, swelling the buds, and opening the flowers, which are always blasted by subsequent frosts.

Winds directly from the north are scarcely known in the United States; but from the north-east they are frequent, along the atlantic coasts. They are cold, chilly and disagreeable, being saturated with moisture, and attended by thick heavy vapours and benumbing fogs, accumulated in their passage over the ocean. On crossing the Allegany mountains, the north-east winds change their character, and become dry, light and pleasant. The south winds, which are less hot than those from the south-east, are pleasant and agreeable in the summer. The prevailing winds along the Mississippi and Ohio, are from the south-west, and appear to be a ramification of the trade winds. After passing into the gulf of Mexico, they rise along the coasts of Louisiana and Florida, saturated with the warm vapours of the gulf, and bending towards the north, spread over the country in a north-east direction, and are said to produce a difference of three degrees in the temperature of the western and atlantic states.

Next to the winds, the rains have the most considerable influence, in determining the character of the climate. Numerous and accurate observations, made by intelligent Americans, have ascertained, that one third more of water, at a medium falls in the United States, than in Europe. But it falls in less time, and in much heavier showers. The proportion of clear to cloudy weather, is in favour of America. From the rapidity of evaporation, it appears, that the air of the United States is drier and less calm than that of Europe. This powerful evaporation is also one cause of the copiousness of the dews.

In confirmation of the position, that the air is drier than that of Europe, it may be added, that the former is saturated with a greater quantity of the electric fluid than the latter. The frequency of thunder gusts affords evidence of this: It may also be ascertained by drawing a silk ribbon briskly over a piece of woollen cloth, which will contract with a promptitude never seen in England or France.

The quantity of snow that falls and the space of time it covers the ground, have some effect upon the climate. Where it falls in autumn, before the earth is much frozen, and continues without intermission till the hard freezing weather is over, the earth, having been kept warm, feels, as soon as her winter covering is gone, the power of vegetation begin to operate, and is almost instantaneously clothed with verdure. But in countries where the winter is long and cold, and the face of the earth exposed with little or no covering, it be-

comes frozen to the depth of 2 or 3 feet; and in the spring, when the rays of the sun begin to operate, it is several weeks before they completely extract the frost, during which time a cold vapour rises out of the earth, which keeps the air damp and chilly. This accounts for the coldness and backwardness of the spring, in the middle states along the atlantic shore.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS....In so extensive a domain as that of the United States, diversified with elevated mountains, undulating hills, and low flat plains and marshes, and embracing the most congenial climate of the temperate zone; almost every variety of soil and production of the earth may be found. The soil along the sea coasts of the middle and southern states is composed principally of a sea sand, which extends from 50 to 120 miles into the country. As you approach the mountains, this sand is mingled with a red clay and gravel, washed from the adjacent heights, which gives the soil a yellowish cast. Large tracts of this region are poor and unproductive. But in Maryland, Virginia, and the middle states, the soil is well adapted to the production of grain, especially wheat, which is the great staple commodity of the United States. South of this, to the confines of Florida, tobacco, rice, indian corn, cotton and indigo, are produced in great abundance and perfection. The soil of the Mississippi territory, Tennessee and Kentucky, is composed of a black, rich, friable mould, from three to fifteen feet deep, which produces excellent wheat, rye, barley and oats: but indian corn, rice, hemp, tobacco, indigo and cotton, the last of which has become the staple commodity of the south, flourish here in the greatest perfection. The state of Ohio, Indiana territory, and part of Illinois, exhibit a uniform richness and strength of soil, equalled by few sections of the United States, and surpassed by none. The hills, if almost imperceptible ascents may claim that appellation, as well as the plains, and river bottoms, are composed of a rich, black, moist, warm loam, containing a mixture of sand, and covered with ash, walnut, maple, wild cherry, sycamore, elm, buck eye, honey locust, sassafras, poplar, hickory, beech, &c. of immense growth. This region is well adapted to the production of hemp, flax, tobacco, cotton, indigo, &c. At Belfre, a beautiful settlement on the Ohio, a few miles below Marietta, fifty bushels of wheat have been produced from *one* acre; and on the river bottoms, in good seasons, it is no uncommon circumstance to raise one hundred bushels of indian corn to the acre. Towards the northern lakes, the soil becomes cold, sterile, and less productive. Along the north-western parts of Pennsylvania and New-York, bordering on the lakes Erie and Ontario, the soil is rich, and produces excellent wheat, rye, maize, and various species of grasses. Sugar of a very superior quality is cultivated in the state of Louisiana.

New-England is diversified with a great variety of soils. The hills are covered with a dark coloured loam, mixed with gravel. On the plains sand generally predominates, particularly in the south-eastern parts of Massachusetts. The chief agricultural productions are, grass, flax, rye, oats, wheat, Indian corn, barley and potatoes. Though the hand of cultivation, has, as yet, made but little impression on the forests covering the ranges of the Allegany mountains; yet it has been sufficient to evince that the soil of this wilderness, may, under proper management, rival that of Ireland in the production of flax. It is necessary only to sow it thicker and pull it earlier, to render it

of a quality sufficiently fine and soft, for the fabrication of the finest linens. These mountains also yield potatoes, in vast abundance, and of a quality much superior to those of the low lands. Oats, rye, and in many places wheat, yield rich harvests to the hand of industry.

In this sketch, we have noticed only the general features of the soil and the most predominant productions of agriculture, reserving the more minute varieties of each, till we come to the respective states in which they are found.

BOTANY....The botany of the United States, including the Floridas, or in other words, of the whole region extending eastward from the Mississippi to the ocean, and southward from the river St. Lawrence, with its lakes, to the gulf of Mexico, may be divided into those vegetables which are common to the whole country, and those that occupy only particular parts.

The most generally diffused species among the timber trees are, the willow-leaved oak, growing in the swamps; the chesnut oak, which in the southern states attains an enormous size, and is almost as valuable for its sweet farinaceous acorns as for its wood; the white oak; the red and the black oak. Next to these in rank are the walnut, and the hiccory. The tulip tree and sassafras laurel, more impatient of cold than the preceding, appear as shrubs on the Canadian borders, rise into trees in the midland states, and on the warm banks of the Altamaha, attain the full perfection of stateliness and beauty. The sugar maple, on the contrary, is seen only on the northern sides of the hills in the southern states, and increases both in size and frequency, in the more bracing climate of Pennsylvania, New-York, and Vermont. The sweet gum tree, the iron wood, the American elm, the poplar, and the taccamahacca, appear in every state in the Union where the soil is suitable, without being much affected by variety of climate. The light sandy tracts, both wet and dry, are principally inhabited by the important and useful family of pines; of these the chief species are, the Pennsylvanian fir, the common and the hemlock spruce fir; the yellow, the white, and the Weymouth pine; and the larch: nearly allied to which are the arbor vitæ, and the red cedar of America. The smaller trees and shrubs, that are dispersed in all parts of the United States, among a multitude of others, consist of the following; the fringe tree, the red-maple, the sumach and poison oak, the red mulberry, the persimmon plum, and the triple-thorned acacia.

The mountainous ridges are not sufficiently high to be rich in alpine plants; their climate however is sensibly cooler than that of the plains; on which account, those of the south are inhabited by the vegetables of Pennsylvania and the northern states, while the highlands of the latter abound in the plants of Canada.

But the glories of the American flora are principally confined to the back parts of Virginia, the southern and the western states; it is here that the unfading verdure of the wide savannas, the solemn magnificence of the primeval forests, and the wild exuberance of the steaming swamps, offer to the astonished admiration of the botanist every thing, that by colour, by fragrance, and by form, can delight the senses and fix the attention.

The low ridges of calcareous soil, running parallel with the rivers, and rising from the level savannas into extensive lawns and swelling hills, are generally covered with open or entangled woods, except where they have been converted into tillage by the industry of the

inhabitants. In these rich tracts grow the lofty palmetto, the evergreen oak, the sweet bay, the benzoe laurel, the common laurel, the wide shading broom pine, and the red cedar. The straight silvery columns of the papaw fig, rising to the height of twenty feet, and crowned by a canopy of broad sinuated leaves, form a striking feature in this delicious scenery ; while the golden fruit and fragrant blossoms of the orange, realize the ancient traditions of the groves of the Hesperides. Superior however to all these is the towering magnificence of the great magnolia : in this rich marley soil, it rises above a hundred feet, with a perfectly erect trunk, supporting a shady conical head of dark green foliage : from the centre of the coronets of leaves that terminate the branches, expands a large rose-shaped blossom of pure white, which is succeeded by a crimson cone containing the seeds of a beautiful coral red colour ; and these falling from their cells remain for several days suspended from the seed-vessel by a silky thread, six inches, or more in length ; so that, whether in this state or in blossom, it is second to none for grandeur and beauty.

The level plains by the sides of rivers, and therefore generally in a flooded state during the whole rainy season, are called savannas. The trees that grow upon them are of the aquatic kind, particularly the beaver tree, and American olive ; these are generally either single or grouped together into small open groves, while the larger part of the meadow is overgrown with long succulent herbage, intermixed with shrubs and plants.

The swamps are at all times, even in the height of summer, for the most part under water, and are distinguished from the rest of the country by the crowded stems of the cane, the light foliage of the tupelo tree, the taccamahacca, and the white cedar : this last is perhaps the most picturesque tree in all America ; four or five enormous buttresses, or rude pillars, rise from the ground, and unite a kind of arch at the height of about seven feet, and from this centre there springs a straight column eighty or ninety feet high, without a branch : it then spreads into a flat umbrella-shaped top, covered with finely divided leaves of the most delicate green. This platform is the secure abode of the eagle and the crane ; and the oily seeds contained in its cones are the favourite repast of the paroquets, that are constantly fluttering around.

ZOOLOGY....America, it is said, contains at least one half, and the United States about one fourth, of the Quadrupeds of the known world. The naturalists of Europe and America, with a commendable zeal, have directed their attention to the zoology of the western hemisphere ; and their labours in this interesting and useful branch of natural science have been rewarded with success. But still their nomenclatures of the Quadrupeds of North America are very imperfect. The following catalogue is the best that we can at present obtain. In the sketches which follow, we have been greatly indebted to the works of the ingenious Mr. Pennant. The arrangement of the Orders and Genera, is that of the last edition of Linnæus by Dr. Turton.

ZOOLOGY OF NORTH AMERICA.

CLASS MAMMALIA.

ORDER PRIMATES.

GENUS SIMIA.

Horned Sapajou	-	<i>Simia fatuellus.</i>
Brown Sapajou	-	<i>Simia apella.</i>
Capucin Monkey	-	<i>Simia Capucina.</i>
* Ludicrous Monkey	-	<i>Simia</i>

GENUS VESPERTILIO.

New-York Bat	-	<i>Vespertilio noveboracensis.</i>
Black Bat	-	<i>Vespertilio Americanus.</i>
Brown Bat	-	<i>Vespertilio fusca.</i>
Vampire Bat	-	<i>Vespertilio spectrum.</i>
Hang-lip Bat	-	<i>Vespertilio labialis.</i>
† Red Bat	-	<i>Vespertilio rubra.</i>

ORDER BRUTA.

GENUS MYRMECOPHAGA.

Least Ant-eater	-	<i>Myrmecophaga didactyla.</i>
Striped Ant-eater	-	<i>Myrmecophaga pentadactyla.</i>

GENUS DASYPUS.

Three-banded Armadillo	-	<i>Dasypus tricinctus.</i>
Eight-banded Armadillo	-	<i>Dasypus octocinctus.</i>
Nine-banded Armadillo	-	<i>Dasypus novemcinctus.</i>

GENUS TRICHECHUS.

Arctic Walrus or Morse	-	<i>Trichechus rosmarus.</i>
Manati	-	<i>Trichechus australis.</i>
Siren or Sea Ape	-	<i>Trichechus siren.</i>

ORDER FERÆ.

GENUS PHOCA.

Maned Seal	-	<i>Phoca jubata.</i>
Sea Calf	-	<i>Phoca vitulina.</i>
Harp Seal	-	<i>Phoca Grælandica.</i>
Rough Seal	-	<i>Phoca hispida.</i>
Crested Seal	-	<i>Phoca cristata.</i>
Hooded Seal	-	<i>Phoca monachus.</i>

GENUS CANIS.

Indian Dog	-	<i>Canis Americanus.</i>
Common Wolf	-	<i>Canis lupus.</i>
Black Wolf	-	<i>Canis niger.</i>
Mexican Wolf	-	<i>Canis Mexicanus.</i>
‡ Large Prairie Wolf	-	<i>Canis</i>
‡ Small Prairie Wolf	-	<i>Canis</i>
‡ Large Red Fox	-	<i>Canis</i>
‡ Small Red Fox	-	<i>Canis</i>
‡ Varied Fox	-	<i>Canis alopec?</i>
Silvery Fox	-	<i>Canis cinereo-argenteus?</i>
Black Fox	-	<i>Canis lycaon.</i>
Gray Fox	-	<i>Canis Virginianus.</i>
Common Red Fox	-	<i>Canis vulpes.</i>
Arctic Fox	-	<i>Canis lagopus.</i>
Cross Fox	-	<i>Canis crucigera.</i>
Corsak Fox	-	<i>Canis Corsac.</i>

GENUS FELIS.

§ American Panther	-	<i>Felis cougar.</i>
§ Brown Tiger	-	<i>Felis concolor.</i>
Black Tiger	-	<i>Felis discolor.</i>

Brasilian Tiger	-	<i>Felis onca.</i>
Mountain Lynx	-	<i>Felis montana.</i>
Bay Lynx or Wild Cat	-	<i>Felis rufa.</i>
Common Lynx	-	<i>Felis lynx.</i>
Mexican Cat	-	<i>Felis pardalis.</i>
Mexican Tiger Cat	-	<i>Felis Mexicana.</i>

GENUS VIVERRA.

Vulpacula Weasel or Squash	-	<i>Viverra vulpecula.</i>
Mexican Weasel	-	<i>Viverra prehensilis.</i>
Striated Weasel or Skunk	-	<i>Viverra putorius.</i>
White Weasel	-	<i>Viverra albus.</i>

GENUS MUSTELA.

Sea Otter	-	<i>Mustela lutris.</i>
Common Otter	-	<i>Mustela lutra.</i>
Canada Otter	-	<i>Mustela Canadensis.</i>
Minx	-	<i>Mustela minx.</i>
Tawny Weasel	-	<i>Mustela vison.</i>
Fisher Weasel	-	<i>Mustela nigra.</i>
Common Weasel	-	<i>Mustela vulgaris.</i>
Pekan	-	<i>Mustela Hudsonius.</i>
Pine Martin	-	<i>Mustela martes.</i>
Sable	-	<i>Mustela zibellina.</i>
American Sable	-	<i>Mustela Americanus.</i>
Ermine or Stoat	-	<i>Mustela erminea.</i>

GENUS URSUS

Polar Bear	-	<i>Ursus maritimus.</i>
Grizzly Bear	-	<i>Ursus horribilis.</i>
American Bear	-	<i>Ursus Americanus.</i>
Badger	-	<i>Ursus meles.</i>
American Badger	-	<i>Ursus Labradorius.</i>
Raccoon	-	<i>Ursus lotor.</i>
¶ Wolverine	-	<i>Ursus luscus.</i>
¶ Glutton	-	<i>Ursus gulo.</i>

GENUS DIDELPHIS.

Virginian Opossum	-	<i>Didelphis opossum.</i>
Mexican Opossum	-	<i>Didelphis cayopolin.</i>

GENUS TALPA.

Long-tailed Mole	-	<i>Talpa longicaudata.</i>
Red Mole	-	<i>Talpa rubra.</i>

GENUS SOREX.

** Crested Shrew	-	<i>Sorex cristatus.</i>
†† Aquatic Shrew or Common Mole	-	<i>Sorex aquaticus.</i>
Fetid Shrew	-	<i>Sorex araneus.</i>
Black Shrew	-	<i>Sorex niger.</i>
Mexican Shrew	-	<i>Sorex Mexicanus.</i>
Pigmy Shrew	-	<i>Sorex exilis.</i>

ORDER GLIRES.

GENUS HYSTRIX.

Brasilian Porcupine	-	<i>Hystrix prehensilis.</i>
Canadian Porcupine	-	<i>Hystrix dorsata.</i>
Mexican Porcupine	-	<i>Hystrix Mexicana.</i>

GENUS CAVIA.

Gibeonite or Spotted Cavy	-	<i>Cavia paca.</i>
Long-nosed Cavy	-	<i>Cavia aguti.</i>

* Henderson's Honduras, p. 104.

† Described by Mr. Wilson. See American Ornithology, vol. vi. p. 60.

‡ These animals are described in the history of Lewis and Clark's expedition.

§ Supposed to be the same.

¶ Discovered by Lewis and Clark. This animal is of a yellowish white colour; its feet, and the end of its tail are dusky. Whether it is a new species, or a variety of one already known, we cannot determine. It is preserved in Peale's Museum.

¶ Supposed by some writers to be the same.

** Radiated Mole of Pennant.

†† Brown Mole of the same author.

GENUS *CASTOR*.

Common Beaver	<i>Castor fiber.</i>
Muskrat	<i>Castor zibethicus.</i>

GENUS *MUS*.

Norway Rat	<i>Mus decumanus.</i>
Black Rat	<i>Mus rattus.</i>
American Rat	<i>Mus Americanus.</i>
Water Rat	<i>Mus amphibius.</i>
* Sand or Earth Rat	<i>Mus tupa.</i>
Louisiana Earth Rat or Gopher	<i>Mus Ludovicianus.</i>
† Ash-coloured Rat	<i>Mus cinereus.</i>
Common Mouse	<i>Mus musculus.</i>
Rustic Mouse	<i>Mus agrarius.</i>
Mexican Mouse	<i>Mus Mexicanus.</i>
Virginian Mouse	<i>Mus Virginianus.</i>
Hudson's Mouse	<i>Mus Hudsonius.</i>
American Wandering Mouse	<i>Mus Canadensis.</i>
Meadow Mouse	<i>Mus arvalis.</i>
† Pennsylvania Meadow Mouse	<i>Mus Pennsylvanica.</i>

GENUS *ARCTOMYS*.

Maryland Marmot or Ground-hog	<i>Arctomys monax.</i>
Canadian Marmot	<i>Arctomys empetra.</i>
Hoary Marmot	<i>Arctomys pruinosa.</i>
Tailless Marmot	<i>Arctomys Hudsonius.</i>
Earless Marmot	<i>Arctomys citillus.</i>
Louisiana Marmot or Prairie-dog	<i>Arctomys Ludoviciana.</i>
Columbia Marmot	<i>Arctomys Columbianus.</i>

GENUS *SCIURUS*.

Large Black Squirrel	<i>Sciurus niger.</i>
§ Small Black Squirrel	<i>Sciurus Pennsylvanica.</i>
Cat or Fox Squirrel	<i>Sciurus vulpinus.</i>
Gray Squirrel	<i>Sciurus cinereus.</i>
Louisiana Gray Squirrel	<i>Sciurus Ludovicianus.</i>
Virginian Squirrel	<i>Sciurus Virginianus.</i>
New-Jersey Squirrel	<i>Sciurus hiemalis.</i>
Varied Squirrel	<i>Sciurus variegatus.</i>
Mexican Squirrel	<i>Sciurus Mexicanus.</i>
Hudson's Bay Squirrel	<i>Sciurus Hudsonius.</i>
¶ Carolina or Chickaree Squirrel	<i>Sciurus Carolinensis.</i>
Ground Squirrel	<i>Sciurus striatus.</i>
Fair Squirrel	<i>Sciurus flavus.</i>
Flying Squirrel	<i>Sciurus volucella.</i>
Hudson's Bay Flying Squirrel	<i>Sciurus Labradorius.</i>
** Columbia Gray Squirrel	<i>Sciurus</i> —————
** Red-breasted Squirrel	<i>Sciurus</i> —————
** Rocky-mountain Ground Squirrel	<i>Sciurus</i> —————
** Brown Squirrel	<i>Sciurus</i> —————

GENUS *DIPUS*.

Labrador Jerboa	<i>Dipus Labradorius.</i>
Canada Jerboa	<i>Dipus Canadensis.</i>
American Jerboa	<i>Dipus Americanus.</i>

GENUS *LEPUS*.

Common Hare	<i>Lepus timidus.</i>
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Varying Hare	<i>Lepus variabilis.</i>
American Hare or Rabbit	<i>Lepus Americanus.</i>

ORDER *PECORA*.GENUS *CERVUS*.

Moose	<i>Cervus alces.</i>
Greater Stag or Elk	<i>Cervus major.</i>
Common Deer	<i>Cervus Virginianus.</i>
Rein Deer	<i>Cervus tarandus.</i>
Mexican Deer	<i>Cervus Mexicanus.</i>
Spring-back Deer	<i>Cervus</i> —————
†† Mule Deer	<i>Cervus</i> —————
†† Long-tailed Fallow Deer	<i>Cervus</i> —————
†† Black-tailed Fallow Deer	<i>Cervus</i> —————

GENUS *ANTILOPE*.

American or Prong-horned Antelope	<i>Antelope Americanus.</i>
†† Barbarian Antelope	<i>Antelope dorcas.</i>

GENUS *OVIS*.

Big-horned Sheep or Argali	<i>Ovis ammon.</i>
Rocky-mountain Sheep	<i>Ovis montanus.</i>

GENUS *BOS*.

Bison or American Ox	<i>Bos Americanus.</i>
Musk Ox	<i>Bos moschatus.</i>

ORDER *BELLUE*.GENUS *EQUUS*.

Wild Horse	<i>Equus caballus.</i>
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GENUS *TAPIR*.

Long-nosed Tapir	<i>Tapir Americanus.</i>
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GENUS *SUS*.

Mexican Hog or Peccary	<i>Sus tigrassu.</i>
Darien Hog or Warree	<i>Sus</i> —————

ORDER *CETE*.GENUS *MONODON*.

Narval	<i>Monodon monoceros.</i>
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GENUS *BALÆNA*.

§§ Common Whale	<i>Balæna mysticetus.</i>
Hump Whale	<i>Balæna gibbosa.</i>
Pike-headed Whale	<i>Balæna boops.</i>
Beaked Whale	<i>Balæna rostrata.</i>
Fin-fish	<i>Balæna physalus.</i>

GENUS *PHYSETER*.

Blunt-headed Cachalot or Spermaceti Whale	<i>Physeter macrocephalus.</i>
Sharp-nosed Cachalot	<i>Physeter microps.</i>
Lesser Cachalot	<i>Physeter catodon.</i>
High-finned Cachalot	<i>Physeter tursio.</i>

GENUS *DELPHINUS*.

Porpoise	<i>Delphinus phocaena.</i>
Grampus	<i>Delphinus orca.</i>
Dolphin	<i>Delphinus delphis.</i>
Beluga	<i>Delphinus leucas.</i>

* Called by some writers *Georgian Hamster*, though it differs materially from the Hamsters of Europe in its cheek pouches. The animal which follows has similar pouches; but we have not the means of ascertaining whether or no it is the same species.

† Discovered by Lewis and Clark. See history of the expedition, vol. i. p. 289.

‡ Described by Mr. Wilson. See American Ornithology, vol. vi. p. 59.

§ This has always been confounded with the foregoing, but it is a different species. It abounds in those parts of Pennsylvania which lie to the westward of the Alleghany ridge.

|| This is a nondescript. It is about the size of the *Sciurus cinereus*; of a mixed gray and tawny colour; and has bearded ears. Inhabits near Little Egg-harbour, New-Jersey.

¶ The lower parts of the Chickaree are white; sides of a beautiful gray; along the top of the back a rusty line; its ears are slightly tufted.

** These have been described by Lewis and Clark; but we suspect that the Brown Squirrel is no other than the *Sciurus Hudsonius*, No. 48 of Pennant, Arct. Zool. sometimes called the Pine Squirrel, from the circumstance of its being found in Pine Woods.

†† Described by Lewis and Clark.

‡‡ Called also the Gazelle. Vide Henderson's Honduras, p. 97. Thus it appears that there are two species of Antelope in North America, notwithstanding the opinions and determinations of the European naturalists, that the New World did not afford a single species of this genus.

§§ A young Whale of this species was taken in the Delaware, in the vicinity of the Falls, in the latter part of the year 1814; and exhibited at Philadelphia.

||| A Pike-headed Whale was caught some years since in the Delaware, near Reedy Island, and shown in Philadelphia and New-York.

The *Arctic Walrus*, sometimes called the Sea Cow, is a native of the Magdalene islands, St. John's and Anticosti, in the gulph of St. Lawrence. They are, when out of the water, very unwieldy, and move with great difficulty. They crawl upon the islands in fair weather; and if not disturbed will remain, it is said, for several days without food, basking in the sun. They weigh from fifteen hundred to two thousand pounds; and produce from one to two barrels of oil, which is boiled out of the fat that lies between the skin and the flesh. Immediately on their arrival at their summer residence, the females calve, and engender again in two months after; so that they carry their young about nine months. They never have more than two at a time, and seldom more than one. They are monogamous.

In the upper jaw of this animal there are two long tusks, bending downwards. These are used for the purposes of defence; and in the dreadful conflicts which sometimes happen between them and the Polar Bears, arising from the occupancy of the same piece of ice, the advantage is generally on the side of the Walrus.

They are gregarious, and sometimes have been found together in thousands; are very shy, and avoid the haunts of mankind. They are usually seen on the floating ice. They sleep both on the ice, and in the water, and snore excessively loud. They are harmless, unless provoked; but when wounded, or attacked, grow fierce, and are very vindictive.

Manati. "This animal forms the connecting link between the beasts and fishes. It is a very clumsy creature, with a head thicker than that of an ox; eyes small; and the two feet are placed near the head, for the purpose of swimming. It is of sufficient size to form a load for two oxen. They are about fifteen feet long, and six broad. As this animal has only fore feet, it has obtained the name of *Manati*, i. e. 'an animal with both hands.' This animal has been found in the rivers which run from Georgia into the Gulf of Mexico."*

"The *Manati*," says Captain Henderson, "which is described as forming the boundary between quadrupeds and fishes, is an inhabitant of the waters contiguous to the shores of Honduras. The male and female are usually found together; and, whilst sporting on the surface of the different lagoons, are frequently destroyed by the harpoon or dart, in the use of which the slaves of the settlement, and the Indians of the neighbouring Mosquito nation, are wonderfully dexterous. This singular animal sometimes exceeds a thousand pounds in weight. Its flesh, either fresh or salted, is particularly admired, and thought very closely to resemble veal. The tail, which forms the most valuable part of the manati, after laying some days in a pickle prepared for it with spices &c. and eaten cold, is a discovery of which Apicius might have been proud, and which the discriminating palate of Elagabalus would have thought justly entitled to the most distinguished reward."†

The *Wolf* has a long head, pointed nose, sharp and erect ears, long legs, and a bushy tail which bends down; its hair is pretty long, the colour usually of a pale brown, mixed with dull yellow and black. This destructive animal has fortunately become scarce in the cultivated parts of America. Formerly rewards were offered for killing them, as their ravages among the sheep, calves and hogs of the

* Morse's Geography, vol. i. p. 247.

† An account of the British Settlement of Honduras, p. 37, 106. London, 1809.

settlers, tended greatly to impede the progress of husbandry. In the Genesee country, and the western parts of Pennsylvania, they yet occasionally make a sweep amongst the sheep. But such is the hostility of the inhabitants, that in a short time these animals will entirely disappear from those parts. In Louisiana they are numerous; and commit ravages amongst the Deer and Antelopes, hunting them, it is said, in packs, like hounds, and sometimes relieving each other during the chase, as the game are too swift to be run down by a single Wolf. It is even asserted that they will venture to attack a straggling Bison or Buffaloe. They frequently kill each other in their contests for a carcass.

Indian Dog. Pennant is of opinion that this animal is the Wolf in a domesticated state. "It still betrays," says he, "its savage descent, by uttering only a howl, instead of the significant bark of the genuine dog. It is singular that the race of European dogs shew as strong an antipathy to this American species, as they do to the Wolf itself. They never meet with them, but they shew all possible signs of dislike, and will fall on and worry them; while the wolfish breed, with every mark of timidity, puts its tail between its legs, and runs from the rage of the others. This aversion to the Wolf is natural to all genuine dogs; for it is well known that a whelp, which has never seen a Wolf, will at first sight tremble, and run to its master for protection: an old dog will instantly attack it."*

Almost all the northern and western Indians employ these dogs, yoked to sledges, for the purpose of transporting their game &c. Mackenzie, in his general history of the fur trade, says "that the Knisteneaux Indians in the winter, when the waters are frozen, make their journies, which are never of any great length, with sledges drawn by dogs.† Patrick Gass observes that "the Sioux Indians fasten their dogs to poles, and make them draw them from one camp to another, loaded with skins and other articles."‡ And again, that "they yoke them to a kind of car, which they have to haul their baggage from one camp to another. The dogs," continues he, "are not large, much resemble a wolf, and will haul about seventy pounds each."§

From the Journal of Lewis and Clark we learn that "dog meat is a great dish among the Sioux Indians, and used on all festivals." But it seems that the nations to the westward of the Rocky Mountains, though they possess numbers of these animals, yet they do not eat them. With the last mentioned travellers, dog meat became a favourite food, was found to be a strong healthy diet, preferable to lean Deer or Elk, and much superior to horse flesh in any state.||

With all due deference to the opinion of the respectable Mr. Pennant, we must dissent from him with respect to the origin of the Indian Dog. We do not consider this animal the Wolf. If he be not, as some suppose he is, a collateral descendant of the European family, introduced by the early adventurers into the New World, we have strong reasons to conclude that he is an independent species. However, the result of our inquiries into the history of this animal is very unsatisfactory.

In Barton's Medical and Physical Journal, vol. i, part ii, p. 3, we are

* Arctic Zoology, Art. Wolf.

† Mackenzie's Voyages, vol. i. p. 120.

‡ Gass's Journal, p. 42.

§ Gass's Journal, p. 47.

|| Hist. of the Exp. vol. 2. p. 239.

presented with a highly interesting article on the subject of the *Native Dogs of North America*; from which it is evident that the origin of the Indian Dog is still a desideratum in natural history.

"We are not yet prepared," says the Doctor, "to give an exact genealogical history of the Indian Dog. We are compelled to mix conjecture with fact. The anatomical structure of the animal should be examined. But whatever may have been the origin of this breed of dogs, I am disposed to think, with Josselyn, that the savages found it in the woods, and that it has existed as a distinct species, or breed, for a very long period of time.

"It is highly probable, that the Indian Dog still exists, in a wild state, in the woods of many parts of North America. It is likely that when seen, he has been sometimes mistaken for the Wolf. A very intelligent Indian informed me, that, in the year 1792, when traveling towards the head-waters of the river Miami, which empties into Lake Erie, he had met with Wolves which barked like Dogs, though, in other respects, they appeared to be little different from Wolves. Perhaps, future researches will show, that these were the real Indian Dogs, in their wild state. The subject is worthy of farther inquiry."

In the history of Lewis and Clark's expedition, we have an account of two animals, which are termed *Prairie Wolves*, the barking of which, (whether one, or both is not specified) "resembles precisely that of the common Cur Dog."*

Thus the story of the Indian is corroborated, and the conjecture of Professor Barton receives additional strength, by the respectable testimony of Lewis and Clark.

The *Arctic Fox* is smaller than the common Fox; its colour a bluish gray, and sometimes white; hair long, soft and silky; legs short; tail shorter than that of the common Fox, and more bushy.

These animals are found only in the Arctic regions, a few degrees within and without the Polar circle. They are only migratory in Hudson's Bay, once in four or five years. They are the hardiest of animals, and even in Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla prowl out for prey during the severity of the winter. They live on young wild geese, and all kinds of water fowl; on their eggs; on hares and the smaller animals. They are tame and inoffensive; are killed for the sake of their skins, both in Asia and Hudson's Bay. Their fur is light and warm, but not durable.

Gray, and *Red Foxes* are common throughout North America; but the former are more numerous, especially to the southward. Although universally detested and persecuted by man, yet these animals do not often commit depredations upon the farmer, and then only when urged by necessity. Sometimes the hen-roost will be robbed, or some vagrant turkey or chicken carried off. But in common, these wary animals are not fond of approaching too near the habitations of man, especially if there be a dog near the premises.

Along the coast of New Jersey, Foxes abound, harbouring among the green briars and myrtle bushes of the sea shore. They choose these retreats that they may have the advantage of the salt marshes, which are their principal hunting grounds. An immense number of birds of various kinds, particularly of the *Grallæ* order, breed in these marshes, and on the sand hills, on the eggs and young of which the

Foxes feed; and during the whole of the winter these animals are abundantly supplied with geese, brant and ducks, which, on being wounded by the gunners, either die or are caught by the Foxes. They likewise lie in ambush on the margins of the fresh water ponds, where the ducks come to drink and feed at night, and destroy numbers.

The *Couguar* or *Panther* inhabits Canada and Florida, and is sometimes seen in the states bordering on the lakes, and the Mississippi. It has become a rare animal. Pennant observes that "it is the most pernicious animal of North America. It lives in forests. Sometimes purrs, at other times makes a great howling. Is extremely destructive to domestic animals, particularly to hogs. It preys also upon the Moose and other Deer; falling on them from the tree it lurks in. It will feed even on beasts of prey. I have seen the skin of one which was shot just as it had killed a wolf."*

The *Lynx* has pale yellow eyes; erect ears, tufted with long black hair; its body is covered with soft and long fur, of a cinereous colour, tinged with tawny, and marked with dusky spots, more or less visible in different subjects, dependent on the age, or season in which the animal is killed; the legs are strong and thick; the claws large. This animal is about three times the size of a domestic Cat; the tail is only four inches long, tipped with black.

The *Lynx* inhabits the great forests of North America. It is called in Canada *le Chat*, ou *le Loup-cervier*, on account of its being so destructive to the deer. The English inhabitants call it the Wild Cat. It is very destructive to their young pigs, poultry, and all kinds of game. The skins are in high esteem for the softness and warmth of the fur; and great numbers are annually imported into Europe.†

Of that species of the Feline race, named *Catamount*, we have so imperfect an account, that nothing conclusive or satisfactory can be given. The animal described by Pennant under the name of the Mountain *Lynx*, he supposed was the *Cat-a-mountain* of Lawson. Its length from the nose to the tail was two feet and a half. But in Morse's Geography an account is given of an animal, which is there named *Catamount*, which is said to have been killed in New Hampshire, and measured as follows: the length of its body, including the head, six feet; circumference of the body two feet, six inches; length of its tail three feet, and of its legs about one foot. The colour along its back was nearly black; of its sides, dark reddish brown; its feet were black.

Pike speaks of having seen an animal resembling the Panther, though considerably larger. Is this the Brown Tiger?

Skunk. This justly abhorred, and universally dreaded animal is found over the chief part of North America. Its ears are small and rounded; its general colour is black, marked with lines of yellowish white; its tail is bushy and long.

Nature has provided the Skunk with a singular, and very efficacious means of defence. On being irritated or attacked, it emits from behind a fluid of so intolerably suffocating and fetid a nature, that the boldest assailant will find himself compelled to a precipitate retreat. Should the smallest drop of this liquid fall on one's clothes, no washing will remove the scent; in order to be purified they must be buried in the ground for several days. The stench of the Skunk may

* Arctic Zoology, art. *Puma*.

† Pennant, Arc. Zool.

be smelt at the distance of a mile. By an accurate dissection, which was made by Dr. Mitchell, it has been found that this ill-scented fluid is entirely distinct from the urine. It is contained in two bags, situate in the posterior parts of the body; and surrounded by the circular muscles in such a manner, that, by their constriction, the fluid is forced out with great velocity. The urinary organs are totally distinct from these bags.* A well bred dog, after several attempts, will succeed in destroying this filthy animal; but a common cur will generally run from it with every sign of terror. When the dog receives the fluid, he retreats, runs his nose into the ground, and barks with great earnestness. A sportsman's dog should never be permitted to attack the Skunk, as he will be thereby rendered unfit for hunting for some time: his powers of scent being impaired.

This animal takes up its abode in old logs, and in the holes made in the earth by the foxes and other animals. It feeds upon birds and their eggs; is very fond of a hen-roost, where it makes free with the poultry and eggs. Whenever it approaches the farm-house, the whole fraternity is in an uproar; the name of Skunk enkindles alarm in every breast: the women run, the children scream, the dogs bark. At length with the aid of poles, stones, or guns, the unhappy intruder pays for his temerity with his life.

The writer of this article once caught a Skunk in a steel-trap, and was nearly suffocated with its stench before he could succeed in despatching it by means of a long pole. This animal was roasted, for the purpose of ascertaining its *agreeable* qualities; it tasted sweet; but the idea of its being a Skunk operated so powerfully as to produce an aversion to it.

The Striated Weasel, and that above described appear to be the same. Pennant says that it "is often tamed, so as to follow its master like a dog." This is certainly an error, for who ever thought of taming a Skunk?

Sea Otter. These valuable animals are found on the coast of the the north east parts of America; between the Kamtschatkan shores and the isles which intervene between them and America; on the Kurile isles, and on the whole western coast of America, from 28 as far as 60 degrees north latitude. Their skin is extremely thick, covered closely with long hair, remarkably black and glossy, and beneath that is a soft down. The hair sometimes varies to silvery. The hair of the young is soft and brown. Their hind feet resemble exactly those of a seal; their fore feet are covered with hair and webbed. The tail is depressed, full of hair in the middle, and sharp pointed. The length of one full grown, from the nose to the tip of the tail, is about five feet; that of the tail from ten to thirteen inches. The weight of the largest, between seventy and eighty pounds.

They are extremely harmless, and singularly affectionate to their young. It is supposed that they bring forth but one at a time. They run very swiftly; swim sometimes on their sides, on their backs, and often in an erect position.

They never make any resistance; but endeavour when attacked, to save themselves by flight. When they have escaped to some distance, they will look back, and hold one of their fore feet over their eyes, to gaze, as men do their hands to see more distinctly in a sunny day; for they are very dull sighted, though remarkably quick scented. They

* Mease's United States.

are fond of those parts of the sea which abound most with weeds, where they feed on fish, sepia, lobsters and shell fish, which they comminute with their flat grinders.

These animals partake very much of the nature of seals, in their almost constant residence in the water, their manner of swimming, fin-like legs, and number of fore teeth. Their skins meet a ready market in China, and command high prices.

The *Common Otters* inhabit as far north as Hudson's Bay, Labrador and Canada; and as low south as Carolina and Louisiana. They also inhabit the western coast of North America. Some few are yet found on the Delaware, below Philadelphia; and on the banks of its tributary streams.

Their fur is fine; of a deep brown colour, with the exception of a white spot on each side of the nose, and another under the chin.

The Otters of North America are larger than those of Europe; and the furs of such as inhabit the colder parts are very valuable. Their food is commonly fish; but it is said that they will attack and devour the Beaver. Lewis and Clark found this animal on their whole route to the Pacific Ocean, even amid the inhospitable regions of the Rocky Mountains.

The *Minx* is a little animal of the shape of the foregoing, but much smaller; its length being only about twenty inches from head to tail; of the tail only four. It inhabits various parts of the United States, and Canada. It frequents the banks of rivers and creeks, dwelling in hollow trees, or holes which it forms near the water. It can swim and dive admirably; feeds upon fish, frogs, &c. and is often found under barns and out houses, sneaking after the poultry and the rats. Along the coast this animal abounds; and it is very destructive to those birds which breed in the salt marshes, surprising them on their nests and sucking their eggs. When irritated, the Minx emits an excessively fetid odour. Its common name, and that whereby it is best known, is Mink.

Weasels are common throughout North America. They are well known to our farmers, who bear them no good will in consequence of the depredations which they commit among the poultry. But notwithstanding their bad qualities, they are sometimes of great benefit to the husbandman in ridding his granaries of those destructive pests, the rats.

Ermine. This neat and clean little animal, is said to change in the winter, in northern countries, to a snowy whiteness, the end of its tail excepted, which still remains black. In its summer dress it is called a Stoat; it is then of a tawny brown colour above, and white below. It inhabits the northern parts of North America.

The *Polar Bear* almost entirely surrounds the neighbourhood of the Polar circle. It is found within it as far as navigators have penetrated; in the island of Spitzbergen, and within Baffin's Bay; in Greenland and Hudson's Bay; in Terra de Labrador; and, by accident, wafted from Greenland, on islands of ice, to Iceland and Newfoundland. These animals affect the utmost severity of the Arctic zone. They are impatient of heat. One that was brought alive into England, some years since, was restless and furious during the warm weather; and its keeper was obliged to pour on it frequently pailfuls of cold water.

The Polar Bear has a long narrow head and neck; the tip of the

nose is black ; its teeth are of great magnitude ; its hair is of great length, soft and white, and in part tinged with yellow.

Travellers vary about their size. One measured by order of Lord Mulgrave was as follows :

	Feet.	Inches.
Length from the snout to the tail	7	1
from snout to shoulder bone	2	3
Height at the shoulder	4	3
Circumference near the fore legs	7	
of the neck near the ear	2	1
Breadth of the fore paw		7
Weight of the carcass without the head, skin, or entrails	610lbs.	

These animals are very ferocious. They will attack, and attempt to board, vessels far distant from the shore ; and, in some instances, have been with difficulty repelled. They seem to give a preference to human blood. Their usual food is fish, seals, and the carcasses of whales. On land they prey on deer, hares, young birds and eggs, and often on whortleberries and crowberries. They are at constant enmity with the Walrus or Morse ; the last, by reason of its vast tusks, has generally the superiority ; but frequently both the combatants perish in the conflict.

Grizzly Bear. "This animal," says Mr. Brackenridge, "is the monarch of the country which he inhabits. The African Lion, or the Tiger of Bengal, are not more terrible or fierce. He is the enemy of man, and literally thirsts for human blood. So far from shunning, he seldom fails to attack ; and even to hunt him. The Indians make war upon these ferocious monsters, with the same ceremonies as they do upon a tribe of their own species : and in the recital of their victories, the death of one of them gives the warrior greater renown than the scalp of a human enemy.

"He possesses an amazing strength, and attacks without hesitation, and tears to pieces, the largest Buffaloe. The colour is usually such as the name indicates, though there are varieties, from black to silvery whiteness. The skins are highly valued for muffs and tippets ; and will bring from twenty to fifty dollars each.

"This Bear is not usually seen lower than the Mandan villages. In the vicinity of the Roche Jaune, and of Little Missouri, they are said to be most numerous. They do not wander much in the prairies, but are usually found in points of wood, in the neighbourhood of large streams.

"In shape, he differs from the common Bear in being proportionally more long and lank. He does not climb trees, a circumstance which has enabled hunters, when attacked, to make their escape."*

In the history of the expedition under the command of Lewis and Clark, we have much interesting information relating to this dreadfully ferocious animal. These enterprising travellers made many narrow escapes from the attacks of this monster, who in some instances was not brought to the ground until he had received seven or eight balls through his body. As a wonderful proof of the tenacity of life of this animal, one that was killed the nineteenth of May 1805, ran at his usual pace nearly a quarter of a mile, after having been *shot through the heart.*

* Views of Louisiana, by H. M. Brackenridge, Esq. p. 55.

The Grizzly Bear has been long known to naturalists; but the above mentioned travellers were the first to give us a particular account of this monarch of the American forests. One killed by them near the Porcupine river measured as follows:

	Feet.	Inches.
Length from the nose to the extremity of the hind feet	8	7½
Circumference near the fore legs	5	10½
of the neck	3	11
of the middle of the fore leg	1	11
Length of the talons		4¾

His weight, on conjecture, was between five and six hundred pounds. But this was not the largest Bear that was killed by the party. They give us an account of one which measured *nine* feet from the nose to the extremity of the tail; and the talons of another were six and a quarter inches in length. It is said that this animal when full grown and fat will exceed a thousand pounds.

The *American*, or common *Black Bear* is found all over the unsettled parts of North America. Its cheeks and throat are of a yellowish brown colour; the hair of its body and limbs is glossy and black.

They are inoffensive to mankind, provided they are not irritated; but if wounded, they will turn on their assailant with great fury, and, in case they can lay hold, seldom fail of hugging him to death. They cautiously avoid the hunters; and the smallest dog will fill them with alarm. They climb trees with great dexterity.

The long time which these animals subsist without food is amazing. They will continue in their retreat for six weeks without the least provision, remaining either asleep or totally inactive. It is pretended that they live by sucking their paws; but this is a vulgar error. The fact is, they retire immediately after autumn, when they have fattened themselves to an excessive degree by the abundance of the fruits which they find at that season. But when this internal support is exhausted, and they begin to feel the call of hunger, on the approach of the severe season they quit their dens in search of food.

In the lower parts of New Jersey a few of these animals are yet found. Their places of retreat are the thick solitary cedar swamps; through which it is extremely difficult for the hunters to pass, owing to the great quantity of fallen timber, the ruins of ancient forests; and the situation of the soil, which is low and wet. Now and then one of these Bears is brought to the Philadelphia market, and the lovers of good eating are indulged with a delicious repast. The fat of the Bear, like that of the Green Turtle, never cloyes or lies heavy on the stomach, though one eats to excess.

Opossum. This species is found as far north as Canada, where it is called by the French inhabitants, *Le Rat de bois*, or the Wood Rat; thence it extends southward, even to the Brasils and Peru.

The Opossum is considered by naturalists as one of the most curious animals yet discovered. On the lower part of the belly of the female is a large pouch, in which the teats are placed, and wherein the young lodge as soon as they are born. She produces from four to twelve at a time. As soon as they come into the world they retreat into the false belly, blind, naked, and exactly resembling little fœtuses. They fasten closely to the teats, as if they grew to them. Here they

remain, adhering as though inanimate, till they arrive at some degree of perfection in shape, and obtain their sight, strength and hair, after which they undergo a sort of second birth. From that time, they use the pouch as an asylum from danger. The female carries them about with the utmost affection, and they may frequently be seen sporting in and out of this false belly.

The Opossum is both carnivorous and frugivorous. It is a great enemy to poultry, of which it is said to suck the blood, leaving the flesh untouched. It climbs trees very expertly; feeds on wild fruits, and also on various roots. Its tail, which is long and round, has the same prehensile quality as that of some species of Monkeys. It will hang from the branches by it, and, by swinging its body, fling itself among the boughs of the adjacent trees. It is a very sluggish animal; and makes scarcely any efforts to escape. When it finds itself on the point of being taken, it counterfeits death; and will endure very severe usage without giving signs of life.

This animal is very fond of ripe persimmons; and in the autumn it is frequently detected, at night, feasting upon this palatable fruit. At such times, if the tree be shaken, the Opossum will drop, and suffer itself to be borne off without a struggle. They become excessively fat; are common in the Philadelphia markets; and when roasted, or baked in the manner of a sucking pig, are an excellent and wholesome dish.

The history of the *Beaver* is so well known, and has been incorporated into such a variety of publications, that it seems not necessary, in this place, to enter into detail on the subject.

Our enterprising travellers, Lewis and Clark, found this valuable animal during their whole route to the Pacific Ocean. Even amid the Rocky Mountains, they were observed in immense numbers; and greatly contributed to the support of the wearied and half famished pilgrims, in those barren regions, where Nature assumes her wildest and most uninviting form. "The Beaver of this country," says the historian of the journey, "is large and fat: the flesh is very palatable, and at our table was a real luxury."* The tail, when boiled, was esteemed the most delicate part; was said to resemble in flavour the tongues and sounds of codfish; and was generally so large as to afford a plentiful meal for two men.

"The Beaver on the upper parts of the Missouri are in greater quantities, larger and fatter, and their fur is more abundant, and of a darker colour than those below. Their favourite food seems to be the bark of the cotton wood and willow, as no other species of tree appeared to have been touched by these animals, and these trees they gnaw to the ground through a diameter of twenty inches."†

The junction of the Rochejaune or Yellowstone river with the Missouri has been recommended as a judicious position for the purposes of trade: the former river and its branches abounding in Beavers and Otters; and the circumjacent country begin the grand pasturage of those innumerable herds of Buffaloe, Elk, Deer and Antelopes which have excited the astonishment of the inquisitive and intelligent voyagers of the Missouri.‡

"The Beaver," says Mr. Umfreville, "is of a very docile disposi-

* History of the Expedition, vol. ii. p. 170.

† Idem, vol. i. p. 191.

‡ Id. vol. ii. p. 397.

tion, and when taken young and properly brought up, may be made to discover a very faithful and affectionate regard for his keeper. I once possessed a young male which, after a month's keeping, would follow me about like a dog; and when I had been absent from him for a couple of hours, he would shew as much joy at my return, as one of the canine species could possibly do."*

Muskrat. This well known animal is found all over North America. Its length from the nose to the end of the tail is about twenty-four inches; its eyes are small and dark; ears large, and hid in the fur; upper parts reddish brown; lower fore parts ferruginous; abdomen reddish drab; its feet are five-toed; the hind feet are semipalmate. The weight of one full grown is upwards of three pounds.

Pennant has with great propriety classed the Muskrat with the Beaver; but Turton has arranged it with the genus *Mus*. It is unquestionably a Beaver in its habits. It is never found remote from water: the margins of mill-ponds, brooks, creeks and meadow-ditches are its dwelling places. It feeds on various vegetable substances; on fruit; and, it is said, fresh water muscles.

Great quantities of this animal are caught every year in the United States, by those skilled in trapping; notwithstanding which multitudes yet remain, and occasion much trouble and damage to the proprietors of the meadows and mill-seats, in the embankments and dams of which, the Muskrats are continually burrowing.

In the summer, the Muskrat smells strongly of musk; but in the winter this odour is not perceptible, until the animal is handled.

The *Louisiana Marmot*, commonly called *Prairie Dog* or *Barking Squirrel*, is found in considerable numbers in the vicinity of the Missouri, and throughout the greater part of Louisiana. This animal commonly weighs three pounds. The colour is an uniform bright brick red and gray, the former predominates; the under side of the neck and belly are lighter than the other parts of the body; the legs are short, and the breast and shoulders wide; the head is stout and muscular, and terminates more bluntly, wider and flatter than that of the common squirrel; the ears are short, and have the appearance of amputation; the jaw is furnished with a pouch to contain his food, but not so large as that of the common squirrel; the nose is armed with whiskers on each side, and a few long hairs are inserted on each jaw, directly over the eyes; the eyes are small and black; each foot has five toes, and the two outer ones are much shorter than those in the centre. The two inner toes of the fore feet are long, sharp, and well adapted to digging and scratching. From the extremity of the nose to the end of the tail this animal measures one foot, five inches, of which the tail occupies four inches. Notwithstanding the clumsiness of his form, he is remarkably active, and burrows in the ground with great rapidity. These animals burrow, and reside in their little subterraneous villages like the Burrowing Squirrel. To these apartments, although six or eight usually associate together, there is but one entrance. They are of great depth, and Captain Lewis once pursued one to the depth of ten feet, and did not reach the end of the burrow. He likewise poured into one of the holes five barrels of water without filling it. The Prairie Dogs occupy, in this manner, several hundred acres of ground. They generally select a southeasterly exposure, on the side of a hill, for their villages; and they sit with

* Umfréville's Hudson's Bay, p. 171.

much confidence at the mouth of their burrows, barking at the intruder as he approaches, with a fretful and harmless intrepidity. Their note resembles that of the little toy-dog: the yelps are in quick and angry succession, attended by rapid and convulsive motions, as if they were determined to sally forth in defence of their freehold. When at rest, their position is generally erect on their hind feet and rump; and when alarmed they retreat into their subterraneous apartments. They feed on the grass of their village, the limits of which they never venture to exceed. As soon as the frost commences, they shut themselves up in their caverns, and remain in a torpid state until the spring. The flesh of this animal is not unpleasant to the taste.*

The Wolves are said to be enemies of the Marmots, and to commit great havock among them.† The Rattle Snakes likewise frequent their villages to devour the inhabitants. Pike says: "It is extremely dangerous to pass through their towns, as they abound with Rattle Snakes, both of the yellow and black species; and strange as it may appear, I have seen the *Wisstonwish*, (*Prairie Dog*) the Rattle Snake, the Horn Frog (Horned Lizard)‡ and a land Tortoise all take refuge in the same hole. I do not pretend to assert, that it was their common place of resort, but I have witnessed the fact more than in one instance.§

It is said that the Horned Lizard and a small snake live habitually with the Marmots: the Indians call the snake the Dog's guard, and entertain many superstitious notions respecting these animals.||

Columbia Marmot. From the description which follows, taken from the History of Lewis and Clark's expedition, vol. ii, p. 173, we are inclined to consider the animal a *Marmot*, and have named it accordingly. We have not learnt whether or no a specimen of this animal has been preserved. A stuffed skin of the Louisiana Marmot, is in the Museum of Mr. Peale.

"There is a species of Squirrel, which we have denominated the Burrowing Squirrel. He inhabits the plains of the Columbia, and somewhat resembles those found on the Missouri.** He measures one foot and five inches in length, of which the tail comprises two and a half inches only; the neck and legs are short; the ears are likewise short, obtusely pointed, and lie close to the head, and the aperture larger than will generally be found among burrowing animals; the eyes are of a moderate size, the pupil black, and the iris of a dark sooty brown; the whiskers are full, long and black; the teeth, and, indeed, the whole contour, resemble those of the Squirrel; each foot has five toes: the two inner ones of the fore feet are remarkably short, and are equipped with blunt nails, the remaining toes on the front feet are long, black, slightly curved, and sharply pointed; the hair of the tail is thickly inserted on the sides only, which gives it a flat appearance, and a long oval form: the tips of the hair forming the outer edges of the tail are white, the other extremity of a fox red, the under part resembles an iron gray, the upper is of a reddish brown; the lower part of the jaws, the under part of the neck, legs

* History of Lewis and Clark's expedition, vol. i, p. 68—ii, p. 175.

† Brackenridge's Views of Louisiana, p. 58.

‡ *Lacerta orbicularis*.

§ Pike's Journal, p. 156.

|| Description of Ohio, &c. p. 168, Boston. 1812.

** *Prairie Dog*.

and feet, from the body and belly downwards, are of a light brick red; the nose is of a darker shade of the same colour; the upper part of the head, neck and body is of a curious brown gray, with a slight tinge of brick red: the longer hairs of these parts are of a reddish white colour at their extremities, and falling together give this animal a speckled appearance. These animals form in large companies, like those on the Missouri, occupying with their burrows sometimes two hundred acres of land: the burrows are separate, and each possesses, perhaps, ten or twelve of these inhabitants. There is a little mound in front of the hole, formed of the earth thrown out of the burrow, and frequently there are three or four distinct holes, forming one burrow, with these entrances around the base of these little mounds. These mounds, sometimes about two feet in height, and four in diameter, are occupied as watch-towers by the inhabitants of these little communities. The Squirrels, one or more, are irregularly distributed on the tract they thus occupy, at the distance of ten, twenty, or sometimes from thirty to forty yards. When any one approaches, they make a shrill whistling sound, somewhat resembling *tweet, tweet, tweet*: the signal for their party to take the alarm, and to retire into their intrenchments. They feed upon the roots of grass &c."

North America abounds in *Squirrels* of various kinds; and there are doubtless several species which have not yet been noticed by Zoologists. We have lately discovered that a nondescript of this tribe, inhabits the eastern part of the State of New Jersey, near Tuckerton; as yet, we know not how far it extends. It has a characteristic mark in its greatly bearded ears; and, contrary to the practice of our common Squirrels, it is said not to dwell in hollow trees, but in nests, even during the severity of the winter. From this last mentioned circumstance, we have given it the specific denomination of *hiemalis*.

Our Catalogue, it will be perceived, is enriched with the names of those animals of this genus, which were discovered by Lewis and Clark, the stuffed skins of which have been deposited in Peale's Museum. The history of their journey gives an account of some others; but as this notice is a mere record of their existence, we are not enabled to determine whether or no they are nondescripts.

The Squirrels of the United States live chiefly upon forest nuts, of which the shellbark appears to be a favourite. The *Ground Squirrel*,* which is the most numerous of the genus, burrows in the earth, and lays up magazines of provisions for the winter, during the severity of which it is seldom seen. The rest chiefly dwell in hollow trees, where their provisions are deposited for the season of scarcity. The large Squirrels generally form their nests of leaves, in the forks of trees, where they bring forth their young. In those parts of the country where these last mentioned are numerous, they commit great depredations upon the fields of Indian Corn, attacking it while it is in its milky state. In our western forests, partial migrations of these animals sometimes take place; and a few years since many thousands of them were drowned in attempting to cross the river Ohio.

The *Flying Squirrel* of the United States, is perhaps the most generally beloved of the whole tribe. It is a beautiful little animal, easily tamed, and becomes very familiar. It is likewise less mischievous than the others. It is of a tender nature, loves warmth, and will creep

* Called by Pennant the *Striped Dormouse*. Arctic Zoology, vol. i, p. 146, edition 1792.

into the bosom, sleeve, or pocket of any one who will grant it that indulgence.

Squirrels when fat are good eating: their flesh is more juicy than that of the Rabbit, and in every respect it is preferable.

Moose. This celebrated animal has been described by the European naturalists, under the names of *Moose* and *Elk*, from its resemblance to the Elk of the old world. It is even said that it is the same species. Hence, many have supposed that the American animals called Moose and Elk have been confounded, which on due inquiry will be found to be otherwise, except in a few instances, wherein the name has created some confusion in the location of the subject of this article. The Deer known in America by the name of Elk, is very improperly designated, it having no resemblance to that animal.

The Moose has horns with short beams, spreading into a broad palm, furnished on the outward side with sharp snags, the inner side plain, no brow antlers; it has small eyes; long slouching asinine ears; large nostrils; the upper lip is square, great, and hanging far over the lower, and has a deep furrow in the middle, so as to appear almost bifid; under the throat there is a small excrescence, with a long tuft of coarse black hair pendant from it; the neck is shorter than the head; along the top there is an upright, short, thick mane of a light brown colour; withers elevated; tail short; the legs are long, and those behind are the shorter; hoofs much cloven. The colour of the body is of a hoary brown; tail dusky above, white beneath. The vast size of the head, the shortness of the neck, and the length of the ears, give the beast a deformed and stupid look.

The greatest height of this animal, which Mr. Pennant had heard of, is seventeen hands; the greatest weight twelve hundred and twenty nine pounds. The largest horns which he had seen, are in the house of the Hudson's Bay Company: they weigh fifty-six pounds; their length is thirty-two inches, breadth of one of the palms thirteen inches and a half, space between point and point thirty-four. The female is less than the male, and wants horns.

The Moose inhabits the isle of Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, the western side of the Bay of Fundy, and the northern parts of Canada. In the territory of the United States, it is found at the head waters of the Mississippi; and some few, it is said, yet frequent the White Mountains of New Hampshire: that range having been formerly celebrated for the residence of these animals.

The Moose reside amidst forests, for the conveniency of browsing the boughs of trees, because they are prevented from grazing with any kind of ease, by reason of the shortness of their necks, and length of their legs. They have a singular gait: their pace is a shambling trot, but they go with great swiftness. In their common walk they lift their feet very high, and will, without any difficulty, step over a gate five feet high. They feed principally in the night; and when they graze, it is always against an ascent, for the reason above assigned. They ruminate like the Ox.

They go to rut in Autumn, and are at that time very furious. They bring, in the month of April, two young at a birth, which follow the dam a whole year.

They are very inoffensive, except in the rutting season, or except they are wounded, when they will turn on the assailant, and attack him with their horns, or trample him to death beneath their great hoofs.

The flesh of the Moose is extremely sweet and nourishing. The Indians say that they can travel three times as far after a meal of this animal, as after any other food. The tongue is excellent, but the nose is perfect marrow, and esteemed the greatest delicacy in all Canada.

Greater Stag or Elk. Under the name of *Stag*, Pennant has given an account of this animal, which somewhat resembles the Stag of Europe; though the materials whereof the ingenious naturalist composed its history were rather slender.

The early travellers in America mention this Deer, and call it a Stag. Kalm says that an Indian living in 1748 had killed many Stags on the spot where Philadelphia now stands.*

By what means this animal obtained the name of Elk, we are at present unable to determine; and it would be of no importance if the point were ascertained. It certainly was an improper appellation; but in compliance to long-standing custom, we shall retain it.

The Elk has an oblique slit or opening under the inner angle of each eye externally, of near an inch in length; which is said to communicate with the nostril. A like opening in the Cervine Antelope, *A. bubalis*, is noticed by Sparrman, and is supposed by him to answer the purpose of facilitating free respiration. The female has no horns. The males drop their horns annually in March, then leaving a pith about four inches in length, which is soon covered and protected by a substance resembling velvet. In eight weeks the horns begin to grow again; they are not palmated; the antlers are round and pointed; the lowermost antler forms a curve downward over each eye, to which it appears a defence.

The rutting season is from the 20th. September, to the 1st. of October. The female is gravid about eight months, and generally brings forth one, though sometimes she has twins.

The hoofs of the Elk are very much cloven; and like the Moose and Rein Deer he makes a great clattering with them in travelling. Though his gait is a trot, yet he is very fleet. The flesh is much esteemed, and the tongue is accounted delicious.

This species was seen by Lewis and Clark, in their route to and from the Pacific Ocean, in immense numbers, often herding in common with the Antelopes, Deer and Bisons. In describing the animals found to the westward of the Rocky Mountains, they say:

"The Elk is of the same species with that which inhabits much the greatest part of North America. They are common to every part of this country, as well the timbered lands as the plains, but are much more abundant in the former than in the latter. In the month of March we discovered several which had not cast their horns, and others where the new horns had grown to the length of six inches. The latter were in much the better order, and hence we draw the inference, that the leanest Elk retain their horns the longest."†

The above travellers killed a male Elk which measured five feet three inches from the point of the hoof to the top of the shoulder.

The *Common Deer* is too well known to require a description. They appear to be found over the chief part of North America; and in the autumn and winter are quite common in the markets of Philadelphia. Their numbers decrease as population gains ground. In

* Kalm, vol. i, p. 336.

† History of the Expedition, vol. ii, p. 167.

the lower parts of the State of New Jersey many of these animals yet inhabit; they are found in the Pine barrens, among the Ground oaks, on the acorns of which they feed; and afford considerable diversion to the hunters every year. From being much persecuted by man, they have become extremely shy, and evince great sagacity in avoiding their pursuers.

The *Rein Deer* has large but slender horns, bending forward, with brow antlers broad and palmated, sometimes three feet nine inches long, two feet six from tip to tip, and weighing almost ten pounds. The body is thick and square; the legs shorter than those of the Stag. The height of a full grown Rein Deer is about four feet six inches.

The female is furnished with horns, but they are less, broader and flatter, and with fewer branches than those of the male. They bring forth two young at a time. The colour of the hair, at the first shedding, is of a brownish ash; it afterwards changes to a hoary whiteness.

The habitation of this interesting and valuable animal, is more limited than that of the Moose: it being confined to those parts where the Winter reigns with the utmost severity. Its most southern residence is the northern parts of Canada, bordering on the territories of Hudson's Bay. Charlevoix mentions a single instance of one wandering as far as the neighbourhood of Quebec. Their true place is the vast tract which surrounds the Bay. They are met with in Labrador, and again in Newfoundland, originally wafted thither across the narrow straits of Belleisle, on islands of ice.

The Rein Deer are found in the neighbourhood of Hudson's Bay in great numbers, columns of eight or ten thousand being annually seen passing from north to south in the months of March and April, driven out of the woods by the moschetoës, seeking refreshment on the shore, and a quiet place to drop their young. They go to rut in September, and the males soon after shed their horns; they are at that season very fat, but so rank and musky as not to be eatable. The females produce their young in June, in the most sequestered spots they can find; and then they likewise lose their horns.

The attachment of the Laplanders to the Rein Deer, and the uses to which they apply this, to them, invaluable animal are well known.

The common name of this animal in Canada is *Le Caribou*.

Lewis and Clark describe three Deer, which they call *Mule Deer*, the *Common Red* or *Long-tailed Fallow Deer*, and *Black-tailed Fallow Deer*. Of the last they say: "The Black-tailed Fallow Deer is peculiar to this coast, (Pacific) and is a distinct species, partaking equally of the qualities of the Mule and Common Deer.* Their ears are longer, and their winter coat darker, than those of the Common Deer. The receptacle of the eye more conspicuous, their legs shorter, their bodies thicker and larger. The tail is of the same length with that of the Common Deer, the hair on the under side white, and on its sides and top of a deep jetty black. The hams resemble in form and colour those of the Mule, which it likewise resembles in its gait. The Black-tailed Deer never runs at full speed, but bounds with every foot from the ground, at the same time, like the Mule Deer. He sometimes inhabits the woodlands, but more often the prairies and open grounds. It may be generally said, that he is of a size larger

* That is, the Long-tailed Fallow Deer.

than the Common Deer, and less than the Mule Deer. The flesh is seldom fat, and in flavour it is far inferior to any other of the species.*

It is probable that the above described Deer has been introduced into Spain from California. In Bewick's History of Quadrupeds,† page 145, we have the following information: "The Fallow-Deer, with some variation, is found in almost every country of Europe. Those of Spain are as large as Stags, but darker; their necks are also more slender; and their tails, which are longer than those of ours, are *black above, and white beneath*."

The *Prong-horned Antelope* is found in great numbers on the plains and the high-lands of the Missouri. It was to Messieurs Lewis and Clark that we were first indebted for a particular account of this beautiful animal. "Of all the animals we have seen," say they, "the Antelope seems to possess the most wonderful fleetness. Shy and timorous they generally repose only on the ridges, which command a view of all the approaches of an enemy. The acuteness of their sight distinguishes the most distant danger; the delicate sensibility of their smell defeats the precautions of concealment; and when alarmed, their rapid career seems more like the flight of birds than the movements of an earthly being. This fleet and quick-sighted animal is generally the victim of its curiosity. When they first see the hunters they run with great velocity: if he lies down on the ground and lifts up his arm, his hat, or his foot, the Antelope returns on a light trot to look at the object, and sometimes goes and returns two or three times till he approaches within reach of the rifle."‡

The Indians near the Rocky Mountains hunt these animals on horseback, and shoot them with arrows. "The Mandans' mode of hunting them is to form a large, strong pen or fold, from which a fence made of bushes gradually widens on each side. The animals are surrounded by the hunters, and gently driven towards this pen, in which they imperceptibly find themselves enclosed, and are then at the mercy of the hunters."§

The Antelopes go to rut about the 20th. of September; and bring forth two young about the 1st. of June. At this last mentioned season the females herd together, apart from the males.

The great body of the Antelopes spend the summer in the plains east of the Missouri, and in the autumn return to the Black Mountains, where they subsist on leaves and shrubbery during the winter, and resume their migrations in the spring.||

Big-horned Sheep or *Argali*. "Certain quadrupeds of this genus," says Pennant, "were observed in California by the missionaries in 1697; one as large as a calf of one or two years old, with a head like a Stag, and horns like a Ram. A second kind was larger, and varied in colour: some being white, others black, and furnished with very good wool. The Fathers called both Sheep, from their great resemblance to them."¶

In Venega's History of California, they are also noticed; and they were seen by Mr. McGillivray of Canada, who gives the dimensions of a male, taken on the spot where he was killed:

* Vol. ii, p. 166.

† New-York edition.

‡ History of the Expedition, vol. i, p. 75.—Id. p. 202.

§ Idem, vol. i, p. 124.

|| Id. p. 110.

¶ Arct. Zool. vol. i, p. 13.

	Feet.	Inches.
Length from the nose to the root of the tail	5	0
of the tail		4
of the horn	3	6
Circumference of the body	4	0
The stand	3	9

The horn is of the circular kind, proceeding in a triangle from the head, like that of the ram. A pair of these horns have been known to weigh twenty-five pounds. In short, this animal appears to be a compound of the Deer and the Sheep, having the body and hair of the first, with the head and horns of the last.

But the animal above described was found in his summer dress, and we have no evidence that this species does not change its coat of hair for one of wool, which will better enable it to sustain the rigours of the Rocky Mountain winter. On the specimens which were brought by Lewis and Clark, and which are at present in Peale's Museum, the wool had made its appearance; and we have every reason to suppose that in the winter this animal exhibits all the appearance of the perfect sheep.

At the Yellowstone river, Lewis and Clark saw the first Argali; and they continued to see them until they left the Rocky Mountains on their journey to the west. These animals generally frequent the highest regions which produce any vegetation; though sometimes they descend to feed at the bottom of the valleys, whence, on the least alarm, they retire to the most inaccessible precipices. They are extremely shy, and possess great speed and activity. They bound from rock to rock with all the facility and confidence of the Goat, and frequently disappoint the hunter by the celerity of their movements.

These animals must bring forth their young at a very early season; as on the 28th. of May, on the upper parts of the Missouri, Lewis and Clark saw them in great quantities, with their young half grown.

In volume ii, page 359, they say, under the date of July 29th, "The Bighorns are in great numbers along the steep cliffs of the river, (Missouri) and being now in fine order, their flesh is extremely tender, delicate and well flavoured, and resembles in colour and flavour our mutton, though it is not so strong."

Lewis and Clark give us an account of another animal of the *Ovis* genus, which we have to lament that they had not the good fortune to see. In volume ii, p. 169, they say:

"The Sheep is found in many places, but mostly in the timbered parts of the Rocky Mountains. They live in greater numbers on the chain of mountains forming the commencement of the woody country on the coast, and passing the Columbia between the falls and rapids. We have only seen the skins of these animals which the natives dress with the wool, and the blankets which they manufacture from the wool. The animal from this evidence appears to be of the size of our common sheep, of a white colour. The wool is fine on many parts of the body, but in length not equal to that of our domestic sheep. On the back, and particularly on the top of the head, this is intermixed with a considerable proportion of long straight hairs. From the Indian accounts these animals have erect pointed horns: one of our engagees informed us that he had seen them in the Black hills, and that the horns were lunated like those of our domestic sheep.

We have nevertheless too many proofs to admit a doubt of their existing, and in considerable numbers, on the mountains near the coast."

This account was written while our American travellers wintered on the Pacific. But on their return up the Columbia, at Brant island, an Indian "offered two sheep skins for sale: one, which was the skin of a full grown sheep, was as large as that of a Common Deer; the second was smaller, and the head part, with the horns remaining, was made into a cap, and highly prized as an ornament by the owner. The horns of the animal were *black, smooth and erect*, and they rise from the middle of the forehead, a little above the eyes, in a *cylindrical* form, to the height of four inches, where they are *pointed*. The Clahelellahs informed us that the Sheep are very abundant on the heights, and among the cliffs of the adjacent mountains; and that these two had been lately killed out of a herd of thirty-six, at no great distance from the village."*

"The Indians assert, that there are great numbers of the White Buffaloe or Mountain Sheep, on the snowy heights of the mountains, west of Clark's river. They generally inhabit the rocky and most inaccessible parts of the mountain, but as they are not fleet, are easily killed by the hunters."†

The *Bison*, commonly called the Buffaloe, has short, black, rounded horns, with a great space between their bases; on the shoulders there is a gibbosity or bunch, composed of a fleshy substance; the fore part of the body is thick and strong; the hind part slender and weak; the tail is about a foot long, and naked to the end, which is tufted; legs short and thick.

The head and shoulders of the Bull are covered with long flocks of reddish woolly hair, falling over the eyes and horns, leaving only the points of the latter to be seen; on the chin, and along the dewlaps, there is a great length of shaggy hairs; the rest of the body during Summer is naked, in the Winter it is clothed equally in all parts. The Cow is less, and wants the shaggy coat, which gives the Bull so tremendous an aspect.

Lawson says that the Buffaloe grows to the weight of sixteen hundred, or two thousand four hundred pounds.‡ But we think that there must be an error in this statement, as some of our late travellers represent it as weighing, when full grown, about one thousand pounds.

The European naturalists have been at considerable pains to ascertain the route by which these animals migrated from the Old to the New World; as it seems they are very unwilling to consider that the *Creator* has been as bountiful to the Americans, in the primeval distribution of his gifts, as He has been to the favoured of the ancient dominions.

"It is difficult to say," says Pennant, "in what manner these animals migrated originally from the old to the new world; it is most likely it was from the north of Asia, which in very ancient times *might have been stocked* with them to its most extreme parts, notwithstanding they are *now extinct*. At that period there is a probability that the old and the new Continents might have been united in the nar-

* History of the Expedition, vol. ii, p. 233.

† Idem, p. 331.—See also page 49 of the same volume.

‡ A voyage to Carolina, by John Lawson, p. 116.

row channel between *Tchutkinoss* and the opposite headlands of America."

Admitting the fact, which Pennant and others have laboured to prove, that the two Continents formerly joined, what evidence have we that these animals did not migrate originally from the New to the Old world? But our limits will not allow a disquisition on this subject; and in spite of all the ingenious hypotheses of the philosophers of Europe, some of whom consider the animals of the Western world mere varieties of their own "*more generous stock*," we are of the opinion that the American Bison differs essentially from that of Europe and Asia, and that it claims to be ranked as a distinct species.

These animals have an extensive range, being found in the countries six hundred miles west of Hudson's Bay, in Canada to the west of the lakes, and in New Mexico. They are not found in South America. The banks of the Ohio, within the memory of some of the present inhabitants of that country, were enlivened with herds of Buffaloes; and the plains of Indiana and Illinois were their places of favourite resort, but encroaching settlements have driven them west.

At the river Kansas the party of Lewis and Clark saw the first Buffalo, and they found them as high as near the dividing ridge, which separates the waters of the Columbia from those of the Missouri. To the westward of the Rocky Mountains they were not discovered.

At Big Dry-river the exploring party found these animals so tame, that they were obliged to drive them out of the way with sticks and stones. It is almost incredible what numbers of Bisons congregate: upwards of twenty thousand have been seen in a drove; and the noise they make in bellowing, and trampling on the earth, when such multitudes herd together, is said to be undescribable. In winding around the hills which border the Missouri, these animals contribute greatly to the picturesque effect of the scenery of that interesting river.*

The rutting season of the Bison commences about the first of August. When that period is past, the great body of the females separate from the males, and it is not unusual to see many thousands together of one sex only. It has been particularly observed of the females, that when they calve they are removed at a considerable distance from the feeding grounds of the other sex.† We may call this instinct, but it is something more. Nature has taught the females to be attentive to the wants of their offspring, to attend them while in a tender state, and to lead them no farther than their strength will admit. They are likewise taught, whether by experience or otherwise, that the ungovernable males are not influenced by the same feelings, and that amidst their overwhelming ranks the poor calves would be as clods of earth, or as the grass of the vallies.

The Indians have various ways of obtaining these animals, which afford them an esteemed food, and clothing of great value. They hunt them on horseback, killing the animals with spears and arrows; attack them in the Spring on the floating ice, and when the herds cross the rivers; and drive them down precipices, which last mode is sometimes attended with great slaughter. For a particular account of all these matters, we must refer the reader to the History of the expedition under the command of Lewis and Clark,‡ and Views of Louisiana by Mr. Brackenridge.§

* Views of Louisiana, p. 263.

† Pike's Exp. Appendix to part ii, p. 5.

‡ Vol. i, p. 175, 235.

§ Page 255.

The *Musk Ox* is numerous between the latitudes of 66 and 73 degrees north. It does not appear that they are found at the head waters of the Mississippi or the Missouri. They first appear on the western side of Hudson's Bay, and continue north. Mr. Hearne, in his journey to the Northern Ocean, saw many herds of these animals. They delight most in the rocky and barren mountains, and seldom frequent the woody parts of the country. They are found in droves of twenty or thirty. They run nimbly, and are very active in climbing the rocks. The flesh tastes strongly of musk; but it is considered wholesome, and beneficial to convalescents. The hair of this animal is of a dusky red, extremely fine, and so long as to trail upon the ground, and render the beast a seeming shapeless mass, without distinction of head or tail; the legs and tail are very short; the shoulders are gibbous. In size, lower than a Deer, but larger as to belly and quarters. For a complete description of this animal, illustrated with a good plate, we refer the reader to Pennant's *Arctic Zoology*, London, 1792.

The *Long-nosed Tapir* has been, by some authors, mistaken for the *Hippopotamus*, which is not found in the New World. The Tapir is about the size of a small cow; its nose is long and slender, and extends far beyond the jaw, forming a kind of proboscis, which it can contract or extend at pleasure; its ears are small and erect; its body formed like that of a Hog; its hair short, and of a dusky brown colour. This animal inhabits the woods and rivers of Mexico; and extends through a considerable part of South America, as D'Azara describes it in his *History of the Quadrupeds of Paraguay*. It is a solitary animal, sleeps during the day, and goes out in the night in search of food, which consists of grass, sugar-canes, fruits, &c. It is quite inoffensive, avoids all hostilities with other animals, and flies from every appearance of danger.

"The Tapir," says Henderson, "is an inhabitant of the thickest and most retired woods in the neighbourhood of rivers and creeks. It swims, dives, and is considered to possess the property of walking beneath the water. As this animal cautiously avoids the day, it is but rarely met with. The meat of the Tapir, contrary to what has been pronounced of it, is in this country considered exceedingly coarse and rank.*

The *Pecary* is found in Louisiana, at the head waters of the Red River; and extends thence throughout Mexico, and the principal part of South America. In some places it is very numerous, herds of two or three hundred are said to be found together. They live chiefly in the higher parts of the country, and are not fond of wallowing in the mire like the common Hog. Their food consists of fruits, roots, seeds, &c. They likewise eat Serpents, Toads, and Lizards.

The Pecary resembles a small Hog of the common kind. Its body is covered with strong bristles, which, when the animal is irritated, rise up like the prickles of a Hedgehog, and are nearly as strong; they are of a dusky colour, with alternate rings of white; it has two tusks in each jaw; its ears are small and erect; and instead of a tail, it has a small fleshy protuberance, which does not cover its posteriors. This animal has a small glandular orifice on the lower part of the back, whence a thin watery humour flows. This humour has been represented by some, as of an extremely fetid smell; but Don

* Henderson's Honduras, p. 103.

D'Azara says, that it is of an agreeable musky odour, though he admits that the food of the animal, or other circumstances, may affect its sensible qualities.

Bewick says, "that although the European Hog is common in America, and in many parts has become wild, yet the Pecary has never been known to breed with it." "The Pecary is very prolific."* This is contradicted by D'Azara, who says, that the female produces her young once a year, and but two at a time.†

"The Pecary and the Warree," says Captain Henderson, "are animals of the Hog kind. The former is the *Sus Tajassu* of Linnaeus, or the *Tajassu* of other naturalists. On the back of this animal is placed a glandulous orifice, which has furnished a very common belief, that in this part of it the navel is situated. The flesh of the Pecary is considered particularly good, either fresh or salted; but on killing it, if the glands just mentioned be not instantly removed, the whole carcass becomes tainted with the most noxious and fetid odour. The latter animal has not been so particularly described. It has been denominated the Hog of the isthmus of Darien; and an opinion has been suggested, that it may only be the European Hog run wild. Both the Pecary and the Warree usually go in large bodies; and at such times it is not considered at all safe to wound or kill any of the party, by firing on them, unless a retreat or place of security be nigh: for those, which remain unhurt, commonly attack the offender in the most desperate way. The approach of these animals may be heard in the woods at a great distance, by the loud and clamorous noise they continually make; and like the domestic Hog, it is asserted that they destroy and eat snakes and reptiles of different kinds."‡

ORNITHOLOGY....The European naturalists, particularly Buffon in his far-famed *Oiseaux*, have attempted to give an account of the Birds of North America. But their works evince such a want of correct information, or prejudice, or both, that the American reader who takes them up with the expectation of amusement or improvement, will be apt to find himself miserably disappointed; and will turn with indifference or disgust from pages that generally exhibit merely a dry detail of specific particulars, or what is worse, that are polluted with injurious misrepresentations,§ the offspring of ignorance or folly.

From the extent of this immense continent, so distinguished by a variety of soil and climate, it was reasonable to conclude that a rich harvest would reward the labours of him who should zealously engage in the study of its natural history. In Europe, though now grown gray in the arts and sciences, yet still retaining the pristine vigour and inquisitiveness of youth, much had been done in this interesting class of animals. But it seemed reserved for America to set the first example of a work, combining elegance of typographical execution and graphical illustration, with accuracy of detail,

* Bewick's Quadrupeds.

† Histoire Naturelle des Quadrupedes de la Province du Paraguay, par Don Félix D'Azara, tome i, p. 38. Paris, 1801.

‡ Henderson's Honduras, p. 97.

§ We are free to explain, that it is principally against the Count de Buffon that our censures are directed. It gives us pleasure to learn that the dogmata of this vain and whimsical philosopher, have lost much of that regard which an imposing name had contributed to attract.

and scientific and moral utility. The "American Ornithology," by the enterprising and ingenious Wilson, has not only immortalized its author, but has greatly increased the stock of useful pleasures, by forcibly directing our attention to a generally supposed unimportant source of gratification; and claims our regard for rescuing a beautiful portion of animated nature from the rude hands of those to whom it had been unfortunately committed.

Anterior to the appearance of the above mentioned magnificent work, several nomenclatures of American birds had been published by writers of America. "But these," says Mr. Wilson, "from the nature of the publications in which they have been introduced, can be considered only as catalogues of names, without the detail of specific particulars, or the figured and coloured representations of the birds themselves." It was the intention of Mr. Wilson to furnish a description and coloured representation of every species of our native birds, from the shores of the St. Lawrence to the mouths of the Mississippi, and from the Atlantic ocean to the interior of Louisiana. A task to which the inflexible mind of that remarkable individual was fully competent. In the prosecution of his plan he had made great progress, having published and prepared, an account of *two hundred and sixty-five* species, *fifty-four* of which were nondescripts, when the Almighty disposer of events saw fit to close his useful labours by death.* May his noble example stimulate some zealous naturalist to complete the design of our ornithologist: a task by no means easy of execution, but if accomplished with the like success, will be attended with honour and fame commensurate to the hazard and difficulty of the undertaking. And may we not hope soon to behold labourers in the other departments of natural history, equally successful in defending the native productions of our country from the attacks of prejudiced foreigners, who have made a merit of depreciating what in truth they do not understand!

"The Ornithology of the United States," says Mr. Wilson, "exhibits a rich display of the most splendid colours, from the green, silky, gold-bespangled down of the minute Humming-bird, scarce three inches in extent, to the black coppery wings of the gloomy Condor, of sixteen feet, who sometimes visits our northern regions;—a numerous and powerful band of songsters, that for sweetness, variety and melody, are surpassed by no country on earth;—an ever-changing scene of migration, from torrid to temperate, and from northern to southern regions, in quest of suitable seasons, food and climate; and such an amazing diversity in habit, economy, form, disposition and faculties, so uniformly hereditary in each species, and so completely adequate to their peculiar wants and convenience, as to overwhelm us with astonishment at the power, wisdom and beneficence of the Creator.

"In proportion as we become acquainted with these particulars, our visits to, and residence in, the country, become more and more agreeable. Formerly, on such occasions, we found ourselves in solitude, or, with respect to the feathered tribes, as it were in a strange land, where the manners, language, and faces of all were either totally overlooked, or utterly unknown to us: now, we find ourselves

* He left drawings of thirteen species more. These were given to the public in a supplementary volume. The whole work consists of nine volumes, imperial quarto.

among interesting and well-known neighbours and acquaintance ; and, in the notes of every songster, recognise with satisfaction the voice of an old friend and companion. A study thus tending to multiply our enjoyments at so cheap a rate, and to lead us, by such pleasing gradations, to the contemplation and worship of the *Great First Cause*, the Father and Preserver of all, can neither be idle nor useless, but is worthy of rational beings, and doubtless agreeable to the Deity."

ZOOLOGY OF NORTH AMERICA.

CLASS AVES.

LAND BIRDS.

ORDER ACCIPITRES.

GENUS VULTUR.

Condor Vulture	<i>Vultur gryphus.</i>
King V.	<i>V. papa.</i>
Californian V.	<i>V. Californianus.</i>
Columbia V.	<i>V. Columbianus.</i>
Turkey-buzzard	<i>V. aura.</i>
Carion-Crow	<i>V. atratus.</i>

GENUS FALCO.

Bald Eagle	<i>Falco leucocephalus.</i>
Ring-tailed E.	<i>F. fulvus.</i>
Golden E.	<i>F. chrysaeos.</i>
White-bellied E.	<i>F. leucogaster.</i>
Fish Hawk	<i>F. haliaetus.</i>
Speckled Buzzard	<i>F. variegatus.</i>
American B.	<i>F. Leverianus.</i>
Ash-coloured B.	<i>F. cinereus.</i>
Plain Falcon	<i>F. obsolitus.</i>
Gentle F.	<i>F. gentilis.</i>
Common F.	<i>F. communis.</i>
Chocolate F.	<i>F. spodiaceus.</i>
St. John's F.	<i>F. S. Johannis.</i>
Sacred	<i>F. sacer.</i>
Newfoundland Falcon	<i>F. Novae terrae.</i>
Hudson's Hawk	<i>F. Hudsonius.</i>
American H.	<i>F. fuscus.</i>
Dusky Falcon	<i>F. obscurus.</i>
Red-tailed Hawk	<i>F. borealis.</i>
Black cap H.	<i>F. atricapillus.</i>
Winter H.	<i>F. hiemalis.</i>
Rough-legged H.	<i>F. lagopus.</i>
Marsh H.	<i>F. uliginosus.</i>
Swallow-tailed H.	<i>F. furcatus.</i>
Mississippi Kite	<i>F. Mississippiensis.</i>
Black Hawk	<i>F. niger.</i>
Red shouldered H.	<i>F. lineatus.</i>
Sharp-shinned H.	<i>F. velox.</i>
American Sparrow H.	<i>F. sparverius.</i>
Pigeon H.	<i>F. Columbarius.</i>
Slate-coloured H.	<i>F. Pennsylvanicus.</i>
Broad-winged H.	<i>F. latissimus.</i>
Great-footed H.	<i>F. peregrinus.</i>
Blue H.	<i>F. caesus.</i>

GENUS STRIX.

Great Owl	<i>Strix bubo.</i>
Mexican O.	<i>S. Mexicana.</i>
American O.	<i>S. Americana.</i>
Sooty O.	<i>S. cinerea.</i>
Spotted O.	<i>S. wapacuthy.</i>
Brown O.	<i>S. ulula.</i>
Canada O.	<i>S. funerea.</i>
New Spain O.	<i>S. tochiqualti.</i>
Tawny O.	<i>S. chichactli.</i>
Acadian O.	<i>S. Acadica.</i>
White-fronted O.	<i>S. albifrons.</i>
Snow O.	<i>S. nyctea.</i>
Great-horned O.	<i>S. Virginiana.</i>
Long-eared O.	<i>S. otus.</i>
Barred O.	<i>S. nebulosa.</i>

Mottled O.	<i>S. naevia.</i>
Barn O.	<i>S. flammea.</i>
Little O.	<i>S. passerina.</i>
Hawk O.	<i>S. Hudsonia.</i>
Short-eared O.	<i>S. brachyotus.</i>
Red O.	<i>S. asio.</i>

ORDER PICÆ.

GENUS LANIUS.

Crested Shrike	<i>Lanius Canadensis.</i>
Northern S.	<i>L. septentrionalis.</i>
American S.	<i>L. Americanus.</i>
Nootka S.	<i>L. Nootka.</i>
Great American S.	<i>L. excubitor.</i>
Loggerhead S.	<i>L. Carolinensis.</i>
Black-capped S.	<i>L. pileatus.</i>

GENUS PSITTACUS.

White-fronted Parrot	<i>Psittacus leucocephalus.</i>
Dusky P.	<i>P. sordidus.</i>
Mexican P.	<i>P. Mexicanus.</i>
Blue-headed P.	<i>P. menstruus.</i>
Yellow-headed P.	<i>P. ochrocephalus.</i>
Red and Blue Macaw	<i>P. macao.</i>
Red and Yellow M.	<i>P. arango.</i>
Carolina Parrot	<i>P. Carolinensis.</i>

GENUS RAMPHASTOS.

Pavonine Toucan	<i>Ramphastos Pavinus.</i>
Collared T.	<i>R. torquatus.</i>
Yellow T.	<i>R. luteus.</i>
Blue T.	<i>R. cœruleus.</i>

GENUS CORVUS.

Steller's Crow	<i>Corvus Stelleri.</i>
Mexican C.	<i>C. Mexicanus.</i>
Carthaginian C.	<i>C. argyrophthalmus.</i>
Zanoe C.	<i>C. Zanoe.</i>
Raven	<i>C. corax.</i>
Common Crow	<i>C. corone.</i>
Blue Jay	<i>C. cristatus.</i>
Canada J.	<i>C. Canadensis.</i>
Clark's Crow	<i>C. Columbianus.</i>
Fish C.	<i>C. ossifragus.</i>
Magpie	<i>C. pica.</i>

GENUS CORACIAS.

Mexican Roller	<i>Coracias Mexicanus.</i>
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GENUS ORIOULUS.

Mexican Oriole	<i>Oriolus Novae Hispaniae.</i>
New Spain O.	<i>O. costototi.</i>
Gray O.	<i>O. griseus.</i>
Red-breasted O.	<i>O. Americanus.</i>
Louisiana O.	<i>O. Ludovicianus.</i>
Black-crowned O.	<i>O. Mexicanus.</i>
Bonana O.	<i>O. bonana.</i>
Lesser Bonana O.	<i>O. Xanthornus.</i>

St. Domingo O.	<i>O. dominicensis.</i>
Melancholy O.	<i>O. melanocephalus.</i>
Olive O.	<i>O. capensis.</i>
Yellow throated O.	<i>O. viridis.</i>
Fork-tailed O.	<i>O. furcatus.</i>
Baltimore O.	<i>O. baltimorus.</i>
Orchard O.	<i>O. mutatus.</i>

GENUS GRACULA.

Boat-tailed Grackle	<i>Gracula barita.</i>
Purple G.	<i>G. guiscalca.</i>
Rusty G.	<i>G. ferruginea.</i>

GENUS TROGON.

Red-bellied Curucui	<i>Trogon curucui.</i>
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GENUS CUCULUS.

Laughing Cuckoo	<i>Cuculus ridibundus.</i>
St. Domingo C.	<i>C. dominicus.</i>
Yellow billed C.	<i>C. carolinensis.</i>
Black-billed C.	<i>C. erythrophthalma.</i>

GENUS PICUS.

Green Woodpecker	<i>Picus viridis.</i>
Varied W.	<i>P. tricolor.</i>
Canada Spotted W.	<i>P. canadensis.</i>
Ivory-billed W.	<i>P. principalis.</i>
Pileated W.	<i>P. pileatus.</i>
Gold-winged W.	<i>P. auratus.</i>
Red-headed W.	<i>P. erythrocephalus.</i>
Hairy W.	<i>P. villosus.</i>
Downy W.	<i>P. pubescens.</i>
Yellow bellied W.	<i>P. varius.</i>
Red capped W.	<i>P. querulus.</i>
Lewis's W.	<i>P. torquatus.</i>
Red bell-ed W.	<i>P. carolinus.</i>
Greater Spotted W.	<i>P. major.</i>
* Rocky-mountain W.	<i>P. montanus.</i>

GENUS ALCEDO.

Belted Kingfisher	<i>Alcedo alcyon.</i>
Cinereous K.	<i>A. torquata.</i>

GENUS SITTA.

White-breasted Nuthatch	<i>Sitta carolinensis.</i>
Red bellied N.	<i>S. varia.</i>
Brown headed N.	<i>S. pusilla.</i>

GENUS TODUS.

Dusky Tody	<i>Todus obscurus.</i>
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GENUS MEROPS.

Cinereous Bee-eater	<i>Merops cinereus.</i>
California B.	<i>M. californiensis.</i>

GENUS UPUPA.

Mexican Hoopoe.	<i>Upupa mexicana.</i>
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GENUS CERTHIA.

Red Creeper	<i>Certhia mexicana.</i>
Brown C.	<i>C. familiaris.</i>
Black and white C.	<i>C. macularia.</i>
Great Carolina Wren	<i>C. caroliniana.</i>
Marsh W.	<i>C. palustris.</i>

GENUS TROCHILUS.

Paradise Humming-bird	<i>Trochilus paradiseus.</i>
Blue-tailed H.	<i>T. cyanurus.</i>
Green-throated H.	<i>T. marulatus.</i>
Spotted H.	<i>T. punctulatus.</i>
Crimson headed blue H.	<i>T. venustissimus.</i>
Mango H.	<i>T. mango.</i>
Black-bellied H.	<i>T. holosericus.</i>
Ruby-throated H.	<i>T. colubris.</i>
Ruff-necked H.	<i>T. rufus.</i>
Least H.	<i>T. minimus.</i>
Little H.	<i>T. exilis.</i>

ORDER PASSERES.

GENUS STURNUS.

Louisiana Starling	<i>Sturnus ludovicianus.</i>
Mexican S.	<i>S. mexicanus.</i>
Brown Headed S.	<i>S. obscurus.</i>
Red-winged S.	<i>S. prædatorius.</i>

GENUS TURDUS.

Red-legged Thrush	<i>Turdus plumbeus.</i>
Spotted T.	<i>T. naevius.</i>
Hudsonian T.	<i>T. hudsonicus.</i>
Labrador T.	<i>T. labradorus.</i>
Mocking-bird	<i>T. polyglottus.</i>
Ferruginous Thrush	<i>T. rufus.</i>
Wood T. or Wood Robin	<i>T. melodus.</i>
Golden-crowned T.	<i>T. aurocapillus.</i>
Cat-bird	<i>T. lividus.</i>
Water Thrush	<i>T. aquaticus.</i>
Hermit T.	<i>T. solitarius.</i>
Tawny T.	<i>T. mustelinus.</i>
Robin	<i>T. migratorius.</i>

GENUS AMPELIS.

Cedar-bird or Chatterer	<i>Ampelis americana.</i>
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GENUS LOXIA.

Gray Grosbeak	<i>Loxia grisea.</i>
Mexican G.	<i>L. mexicana.</i>
Yellow headed G.	<i>L. nova-hispaniae.</i>
Canada G.	<i>L. canadensis.</i>
Brown-checked G.	<i>L. canora.</i>
Hudson's Bay G.	<i>L. hudsonica.</i>
Black G.	<i>L. nigra.</i>
Cardinal G.	<i>L. cardinalis.</i>
Rose-breasted G.	<i>L. ludoviciana.</i>
Blue G.	<i>L. caerulea.</i>
Pine G.	<i>L. enucleator.</i>
Yellow-bellied G.	<i>L. virginica.</i>
Fan-tailed G.	<i>L. flabellifera.</i>
Dusky G.	<i>L. obscura.</i>

GENUS CURVIROSTRA.

American Crossbill	<i>Curvirostra americana.</i>
White-winged C.	<i>C. leucoptera.</i>

GENUS EMBERIZA.

Mexican Bunting	<i>Emberiza mexicana.</i>
Black-crowned B.	<i>E. atricapilla.</i>
White-crowned B.	<i>E. leucocephala.</i>
Blue B.	<i>E. caerulea.</i>
Louisiana B.	<i>E. ludoviciana.</i>
Black-throated B.	<i>E. americana.</i>
Towhee B.	<i>E. erythrophthalma.</i>
Reed bird	<i>E. oryzivora.</i>
Cow B.	<i>E. pecoris.</i>
Snow B.	<i>E. nivalis.</i>
Painted B.	<i>E. ciris.</i>
Bay-winged B.	<i>E. graminea.</i>
Black B.	<i>E. hiemalis.</i>

GENUS TANAGRA.

Gray Tanager	<i>Tanagra grisea.</i>
Black and blue T.	<i>T. mexicana.</i>
Cerulean T.	<i>T. canora.</i>
Scarlet T.	<i>T. rubra.</i>
Summer Red-bird	<i>T. aestiva.</i>
Louisiana Tanager	<i>T. ludoviciana.</i>

GENUS FRINGILLA.

Lapland Finch	<i>Fringilla lapponica.</i>
Carthaginian F.	<i>F. carthaginensis.</i>
Variegated F.	<i>F. variegata.</i>
Mexican Siskin	<i>F. mexicana.</i>
Black Mexican S.	<i>F. cuttoli.</i>
Greater Red-poll	<i>F. cannabina.</i>
Lesser R.	<i>F. linaria.</i>
Black-faced Finch	<i>F. cristata.</i>
Carolina F.	<i>F. carolinensis.</i>

Yellow-bird	<i>F. tristis.</i>
Purple Finch	<i>F. purpurea.</i>
Pine F. or Siskin	<i>F. pinus.</i>
Sea-side F.	<i>F. maritima.</i>
Sharp-tailed F.	<i>F. caudacula.</i>
Indigo bird	<i>F. cyanea.</i>
Snow-bird	<i>F. Hudsonia.</i>
Field Sparrow	<i>F. pusilla.</i>
Tree S.	<i>F. arborea.</i>
Song S.	<i>F. melodia.</i>
Chipping S.	<i>F. socialis.</i>
White throated S.	<i>F. albicollis.</i>
Swamp S.	<i>F. palustris.</i>
Savannah S.	<i>F. Savanna.</i>
Fox coloured S.	<i>F. ferruginea.</i>
Yellow-winged S.	<i>F. passerina.</i>

GENUS MUSCICAPA.

Forked-tail Flycatcher	<i>Muscicapa forficatus.</i>
Swallow-tailed F.	<i>M. forficata.</i>
Louisiana F.	<i>M. Ludoviciana.</i>
Solitary F.	<i>M. solitaria.</i>
Red-eyed F.	<i>M. olivacea.</i>
White-eyed F.	<i>M. canitrix.</i>
Tyrant F. or King-bird	<i>M. tyrannus.</i>
Great-crested F.	<i>M. crinita.</i>
Pewee F.	<i>M. nunciola.</i>
Wood-pewee F.	<i>M. rapax.</i>
Small green F.	<i>M. querula.</i>
Yellow-throated F.	<i>M. sulcirostris.</i>
Blue-gray F.	<i>M. cerulea.</i>
Canada F.	<i>M. Canadensis.</i>
Hooded F.	<i>M. cuculata.</i>
Warbling F.	<i>M. melodia.</i>
Green-black-capt F.	<i>M. pusilla.</i>
Small headed F.	<i>M. minuta.</i>
American R. dstart	<i>M. ruticilla.</i>
Striped Flycatcher	<i>M. striata.</i>
Rusty F.	<i>M. ferruginea.</i>

GENUS ALAUDA.

Louisiana Lark	<i>Alauda Ludoviciana.</i>
Meadow L.	<i>A. magna.</i>
Shore L.	<i>A. alpestris.</i>
Brown L.	<i>A. rufa.</i>

GENUS SYLVIA.

Quebec Warbler	<i>Sylvia uterocephala.</i>
Belted W.	<i>S. cincta.</i>
Louisiana W.	<i>S. Ludoviciana.</i>
Orange-throated	<i>S. auricollis.</i>
Spotted-yellow W.	<i>S. nigra.</i>
Yellow-poll W.	<i>S. aestiva.</i>
Hudson's W.	<i>S. Hudsonica.</i>
Yellow-throat W.	<i>S. flavicollis.</i>
Bay-breasted W.	<i>S. castanea.</i>
Chesnut-sided W.	<i>S. Pennsylvanica.</i>
Mourning W.	<i>S. Philadelphia.</i>
Blue-winged yellow W.	<i>S. solitaria.</i>
Golden-winged W.	<i>S. chrysotera.</i>
Blue eyed W.	<i>S. citrinella.</i>
Black throat-d blue W.	<i>S. Canadensis.</i>
Black-throated green W.	<i>S. virens.</i>
Yellow rump W.	<i>S. coronata.</i>
Cerulean W.	<i>S. cerulea.</i>
Pinecreeping W.	<i>S. pinus.</i>
Black and yellow W.	<i>S. magnolia.</i>
Blackburnian W.	<i>S. Blackburniae.</i>
Autumnal W.	<i>S. Autumnalis.</i>
Prothonotary W.	<i>S. prothonotaria.</i>
Worm-eating W.	<i>S. vermivora.</i>
Tennessee W.	<i>S. perigrina.</i>
Kentucky W.	<i>S. formosa.</i>
Blue-green W.	<i>S. rara.</i>
Nashville W.	<i>S. rubricapilla.</i>
Blue yellow-back W.	<i>S. pusilla.</i>
Yellow red-poll W.	<i>S. ptechia.</i>
Black-poll W.	<i>S. striata.</i>
Prairie W.	<i>S. minuta.</i>
Connecticut W.	<i>S. agilis.</i>
Blue-mountain W.	<i>S. montana.</i>
He lock W.	<i>S. parus.</i>
Pine-swamp W.	<i>S. leucotera.</i>
Cape May W.	<i>S. maritima.</i>
Maryland yellow-throat	<i>S. Marylandica.</i>
Blue-bird	<i>S. sialis.</i>
Ruby-crowned Wren	<i>S. carolina.</i>
Golden crested Wren	<i>S. regulus.</i>

House Wren	<i>S. domestica.</i>
Winter Wren	<i>S. troglodytes.</i>

GENUS PIPRA.

Purple Manakin	<i>Pipra cristata.</i>
Mexican M.	<i>P. picicilli.</i>
New Spain M.	<i>P. maculototl.</i>
Yellow-breasted Chat	<i>P. polyglotta.</i>

GENUS PARUS.

Hudson's Bay Titmouse	<i>Parus Hudsonius.</i>
Black-capt T.	<i>P. atricapillus.</i>
Crested T.	<i>P. bicolor.</i>

GENUS HIRUNDO.

Rock Swallow	<i>Hirundo rupestris.</i>
Ash bellied S.	<i>H. cinerea.</i>
Oonalska S.	<i>H. Oonalskensis.</i>
Barn S.	<i>H. Americana.</i>
Green white-bellied S.	<i>H. viridis.</i>
Bank S.	<i>H. riparia.</i>
Chimney S.	<i>H. peltasgia.</i>
Purple Martin	<i>H. purpurea.</i>

GENUS CAPRIMULGUS.

Chuck-will's-widow	<i>Caprimulgus Carolinensis.</i>
Night-hawk	<i>C. Americanus.</i>
Whip-poor-will	<i>C. vociferus.</i>

ORDER COLUMBÆ.

GENUS COLUMBA.

White-crowned Pigeon	<i>Columba leucocephala.</i>
White-winged P.	<i>C. leucoptera.</i>
Brown P.	<i>C. fusca.</i>
Blue P.	<i>C. caerulea.</i>
White-shouldered P.	<i>C. holleti.</i>
Black spotted P.	<i>C. naevia.</i>
Mexican P.	<i>C. Mexicana.</i>
Passenger P.	<i>C. migratoria.</i>
Canada Turtle	<i>C. Canadensis.</i>
Turtle Dove	<i>C. Carolinensis.</i>
Ground D.	<i>C. passerina.</i>

ORDER GALLINÆ.

GENUS MELEAGRIS.

Wild Turkey	<i>Meleagris gallinavo.</i>
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GENUS PENELOPE.

Guan	<i>Penelope cristata.</i>
Yacou	<i>P. Cumanensis.</i>
Piping Curassow	<i>P. pipile.</i>

GENUS CRAX.

Crested Curassow	<i>Crax alector</i>
Globose C.	<i>C. globicera.</i>
Cush-w C.	<i>C. pauxi.</i>
Crying C.	<i>C. vociferans.</i>

GENUS PHASIANUS.

Courier Pheasant	<i>Phasianus Mexicanus.</i>
Crested P.	<i>P. cristatus.</i>
* Columbia P.	<i>P. Columbianus.</i>

GENUS TETRAO.

* Sharp-tailed Grouse	<i>Tetrao phasianellus?</i>
Spotted G.	<i>T. Canadensis.</i>
White G.	<i>T. albus.</i>
Rock G.	<i>T. rupestris.</i>
Pinnated G.	<i>T. cupido.</i>
Ruffed G. or Pheasant	<i>T. umbellus.</i>
* Brown G.	<i>T. fusca.</i>
Ptarmigan	<i>T. lagopus.</i>

GENUS PERDIX.

Mexican Partridge or	
Prairie-hen	<i>Perdix nervius.</i>
Virginian P. or Quail	<i>P. Virginianus.</i>
Louisiana Quail	<i>P. Mexicanus.</i>
Californian Q.	<i>P. Californicus.</i>
Lesser Mexican Q.	<i>P. coyotlos.</i>
Hudsonian Q.	<i>P. Hudsonica.</i>
Crested Q.	<i>P. cristatus.</i>

* Described by Lewis and Clark, vol. ii, p. 180, 181, 182.

WATER BIRDS.

ORDER GRALLÆ.

GENUS PLATALEA.

Roseate Spoonbill . . . *Platalea ajaja*.

GENUS PALAMEDEA.

Horned Screamer . . . *Palamedea cornuta*.

GENUS MYTTERIA.

American Jabiru . . . *Mytteria Americana*.

GENUS CANCROMA.

Crested Boatbill . . . *Cancroma cochlearia*.

GENUS ARDEA.

Whooping Crane . . . *Ardea Americana*.Night Heron or Qu-a-bird . . . *A. nicticorax*.Great White Heron . . . *A. egretta*.Dry H. . . . *A. hoactli*.Houhou H. . . . *A. hohou*.Great H. . . . *A. herodias*.Louisiana H. . . . *A. Ludoviciana*.Yellow-crowned H. . . . *A. violacea*.Blue H. . . . *A. cærulea*.Rusty-crowned H. or . . . *A. minor*.Bittern *A. exilis*.Least or Minute Bittern . . . *A. candidissima*.Snowy Heron *A. striata*.Striated H. . . . *A. virescens*.Green H. . . . *A. spadicea*.Mexican H. . . . *A. virgata*.Streaked H. . . . *A. cana*.Ash-coloured H. . . . *A. Gardeni*.Gardenian H. . . . *A. Gardeni*.

GENUS TANTALUS.

Wood Ibis *Tantalus loculator*.Scarlet I. . . . *T. ruber*.White I. . . . *T. albus*.Lesser I. . . . *T. minutus*.Mexican I. . . . *T. Mexicanus*.White-necked I. . . . *T. albicollis*.

GENUS NUMENIUS.

Long-billed Curlew . . . *Numenius longirostra*.Esquimaux or Short- . . . *N. borealis*.billed C. . . . *N. Hudsonica*.Hudsonian C. . . . *N. Hudsonica*.

GENUS SCOLOPAX.

Black Snipe *Scolopax nigra*.Nodding S. . . . *S. rufans*.Stone S. . . . *S. melanoleuca*.Jack S. . . . *S. gallinula*.Green-shank S. . . . *S. glottis*.Red-shank S. . . . *S. calideis*.Spotted S. . . . *S. totanus*.White Red-shank S. . . . *S. candida*.Hudsonian Godwit . . . *S. Hudsonica*.American G. . . . *S. fida*.Red-breasted Snipe . . . *S. noveboracensis*.Semipalmated S. . . . *S. semipalmata*.English S. . . . *S. gallinago*.Tail-tale S. . . . *S. vociferus*.Yellow-shanks S. . . . *S. flavipes*.Woodcock *S. minor*.

GENUS TRINGA.

Striated Sandpiper . . . *Tringa striata*.Newfoundland S. . . . *T. Nova-terraz*.Green S. . . . *T. ochropus*.Knot S. . . . *T. canutus*.Gray S. . . . *T. squatarola*.Aberdeen S. . . . *T. Islandica*.Ash-coloured S. . . . *T. cinerea*.Boreal S. . . . *T. borealis*.

Bartram's S. . . .	<i>T. Bartramia</i> .
Variegated S. . . .	<i>T. variegata</i> .
Little S. . . .	<i>T. pusilla</i> .
Red breasted S. . . .	<i>T. rufa</i> .
Ringed S. . . .	<i>T. hiaticula</i> .
Semipalmated S. . . .	<i>T. semipalmata</i> .
Solitary S. . . .	<i>T. solitaria</i> .
Spotted S. . . .	<i>T. macularia</i> .
Purrr	<i>T. cinclus</i> .
Turnstone	<i>T. interpres</i> .

GENUS CHARADRIUS.

Black-bellied Plover . . .	<i>Charadrius apricarius</i> .
Golden P. . . .	<i>C. plumalis</i> .
Ringed P. . . .	<i>C. hiaticula</i> .
Wilson's P. . . .	<i>C. Wilsoni</i> .
Sanderling	<i>C. calidris</i> .
Kildeer	<i>C. vociferus</i> .

GENUS HÆMATOPUS.

Pied Oyster-catcher or . . .	<i>Hæmatopus ostralegus</i> .
Sea-pie	

GENUS RALLUS.

Spotted Rail	<i>Rallus porzana</i> .
Little R. . . .	<i>R. minutus</i> .
Clapper R. . . .	<i>R. crepitans</i> .
Common R. or Sora . . .	<i>R. Carolinus</i> .
Red-billed R. . . .	<i>R. Virginianus</i> .
Cayenne R. . . .	<i>R. Cayennensis</i> .

GENUS PARRA.

Louisiana Jacana . . .	<i>Parra Ludoviciana</i> .
Chesnut J. . . .	<i>P. jacana</i> .
Faithful J. . . .	<i>P. chavaria</i> .
Black J. . . .	<i>P. nigra</i> .

GENUS GALLINULA.

Purple Gallinule . . .	<i>Gallinula porphyrio</i> .
Moor-hen	<i>G. chloropus</i> .
Crowing Gallinule . . .	<i>G. purpurea</i> .
Favourite G. . . .	<i>G. flavirostris</i> .
Carthage G. . . .	<i>G. Carthagea</i> .
Black-bellied G. . . .	<i>G. ruficollis</i> .
Yellow-breasted G. . . .	<i>G. noveboracensis</i> .

ORDER PINNATIPEDES.

GENUS PHALAROPUS.

Gray Phalarope . . .	<i>Phalaropus lobata</i> .
Plain P. . . .	<i>P. glacialis</i> .
Brown P. . . .	<i>P. fusca</i> .
Red P. . . .	<i>P. hyperborea</i> .

GENUS FULICA.

Common Coot	<i>Fulica atra</i> .
Mexican C. . . .	<i>F. Mexicana</i> .

GENUS PODICEPS.

Horned Grebe	<i>Podiceps cornutus</i> .
Little G. . . .	<i>P. minor</i> .
Louisiana G. . . .	<i>P. Ludovicianus</i> .
Dusky G. . . .	<i>P. obscurus</i> .
Pied-bill G. . . .	<i>P. podiceps</i> .

ORDER PALMIPEDES.

GENUS RECURVIROSTRA.

American Avoset . . .	<i>Recurvirostra Americana</i> .
White A. . . .	<i>R. alba</i> .
Long-legged A. or Tilt . . .	<i>R. himantopus</i> .

GENUS PHÆNICOPTERUS.

Red Flamingo	<i>Phænicopterus ruber</i> .
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GENUS DIOMEDEA.

Wandering Albatross	<i>Diomedea exulans.</i>
Chocolate A. . . .	<i>D. spadicea.</i>
Yellow-nosed A. . .	<i>D. chlororhynchus.</i>

GENUS ALCA.

Labrador Auk . . .	<i>Alca Labrador.</i>
Crested A. . . .	<i>A. cristatella.</i>
Little A. . . .	<i>A. alle.</i>
Pygmy A. . . .	<i>A. pygmaea.</i>
Puffin	<i>A. arctica.</i>
Razor-bill	<i>A. torda.</i>
Penguin or Great Auk	<i>A. impennis.</i>

GENUS URIA.

Marbled Guillemot	<i>Uria marmoratus.</i>
Black G. . . .	<i>U. grylle.</i>
Foolish G. . . .	<i>U. troile.</i>

GENUS COLYMBUS.

Striped Diver . . .	<i>Colymbus striatus.</i>
Red-throated D. . .	<i>C. septentrionalis.</i>
Black-throated D. .	<i>C. arcticus.</i>
Northern D. or Loon	<i>C. glacialis.</i>
Speckled D. . . .	<i>C. stellatus.</i>
Imber D. . . .	<i>C. immer.</i>

GENUS RYNCHOPS.

Black Skimmer or Sheerwater . . .	<i>Rynchops nigra.</i>
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GENUS STERNA.

Sooty Tern	<i>Sterna fuliginosa.</i>
Cayenne T. . . .	<i>S. Cayanensis.</i>
Surinam T. . . .	<i>S. Surinamensis.</i>
Simple T. . . .	<i>S. simplex.</i>
Great T. . . .	<i>S. hirundo.</i>
Lesser T. . . .	<i>S. minuta.</i>
Brown T. . . .	<i>S. spadicea.</i>
Black T. . . .	<i>S. fuscipes.</i>
Marsh T. . . .	<i>S. aranea.</i>
Short-tailed T. . .	<i>S. plumbea.</i>
* Banded-tail T. . .	<i>S. Philadelphia.</i>

GENUS LARUS.

Kittiwake Gull . . .	<i>Larus tridactylus.</i>
Common G. . . .	<i>L. canus.</i>
Black-backed G. . .	<i>L. marinus.</i>
Herring G. . . .	<i>L. fuscus.</i>
Black headed G. . .	<i>L. ridibundus.</i>
Arctic G. . . .	<i>L. parvirostris.</i>
Skua G. . . .	<i>L. catartides.</i>
Esquimaux G. . . .	<i>L. kaeak.</i>
Ivory G. . . .	<i>L. churruus.</i>
† Toothed bill G. . .	<i>L. Delawareensis.</i>

GENUS PROCELLARIA.

Dusky Petrel . . .	<i>Procellaria obscura.</i>
Stormy P. . . .	<i>P. pelagica.</i>
Fork tailed P. . . .	<i>P. furcata.</i>
Black toed P. . . .	<i>P. melanopus.</i>
Fulmar P. . . .	<i>P. glacialis.</i>
Giant P. . . .	<i>P. gigantea.</i>
Brazilian P. . . .	<i>P. Brozilhiana.</i>
Glacial P. . . .	<i>P. gelida.</i>
Shearwater P. . . .	<i>P. puffinus.</i>

GENUS MERGUS.

Crested Merganser	<i>Mergus cucullatus.</i>
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Red-breasted M. . .	<i>M. serrator.</i>
Brown M. . . .	<i>M. fuscus.</i>
Blue M. . . .	<i>M. caeruleus.</i>
White Nun or Smew	<i>M. albellus.</i>
Goosander or Sheldrake	<i>M. merganser.</i>

GENUS ANAS.

Wild Swan	<i>Anas cygnus.</i>
† Whistling S. . . .	<i>A. Columbianus.</i>
Snow Goose	<i>A. hyperborea.</i>
Gray G. . . .	<i>A. anser.</i>
Canada G. . . .	<i>A. Canadensis.</i>
Brant	<i>A. bernicla.</i>
Gray-headed Duck	<i>A. spectabilis.</i>
Velvet D. . . .	<i>A. fusca.</i>
Scott r D. . . .	<i>A. nigra.</i>
Blue-bill or Scaup D.	<i>A. marila.</i>
Eider D. . . .	<i>A. mollissima.</i>
Muscovy D. . . .	<i>A. moschata.</i>
Georgia D. . . .	<i>A. Georgica.</i>
Ilathera D. . . .	<i>A. Bahamensis.</i>
Buffet-headed D. . .	<i>A. albeola.</i>
Western D. . . .	<i>A. Stelleri.</i>
Surf D. . . .	<i>A. perspicillata.</i>
Mexican D. . . .	<i>A. Novae Hispaniae.</i>
Sprigtail D. . . .	<i>A. acuta.</i>
Long-tailed D. . . .	<i>A. glacialis.</i>
Red-headed D. . . .	<i>A. ferina.</i>
Canvass-back D. . .	<i>A. valisineria.</i>
Harlequin D. . . .	<i>A. histrionica.</i>
Brown D. . . .	<i>A. fuscescens.</i>
Spanish D. . . .	<i>A. viduata.</i>
Red billed D. . . .	<i>A. Autumnalis.</i>
Pied D. . . .	<i>A. Labrador.</i>
Summer D. . . .	<i>A. sponsa.</i>
Black-billed whistling D.	<i>A. arborea.</i>
Dusky or Common . .	
Black D. . . .	<i>A. obscura.</i>
Tufted D. . . .	<i>A. fuligula.</i>
Ruddy D. . . .	<i>A. rubidus.</i>
Shoveller	<i>A. clypeata.</i>
Gadwall	<i>A. strepera.</i>
Spinous tailed Teal	<i>A. spinosa.</i>
Green-winged T. . .	<i>A. crecca.</i>
B ue-winged T. . . .	<i>A. discors.</i>
Golden eye	<i>A. clangula.</i>
Widgeon or Bald-pate	<i>A. Americana.</i>
Mexican Poehard . .	<i>A. fulva.</i>
Mallard	<i>A. boschas.</i>

GENUS PELICANUS.

Brown Pelican . . .	<i>Pelicanus fuscus.</i>
Great White P. . . .	<i>P. onocrotalus.</i>
Charleston P. . . .	<i>P. Carolinensis.</i>
Rough-billed P. . .	<i>P. erythrorhynchus.</i>
Frigate P. . . .	<i>P. aquilus.</i>
Saw-billed P. . . .	<i>P. thagus.</i>
Gannet	<i>P. bassanus.</i>
Lesser G. . . .	<i>P. piscator.</i>
Brown Booby	<i>P. fiber.</i>
Lesser B. . . .	<i>P. parvus.</i>
Corvorant	<i>P. carbo.</i>
Shag	<i>P. graculus.</i>

GENUS PHAETON.

Common Tropic bird	<i>Phaeton aethereus.</i>
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GENUS PLOTUS.

Black-bellied Darter	<i>Plotus melanogaster.</i>
Surinam D. . . .	<i>P. Surinamensis.</i>

* This is a nondescript. Its length is twelve inches, extent thirty-one; the lower parts pure white; above blue ash; below the auriculars there is a patch of dark slate; the tail is white, short, almost even, and crossed with a dark brown band; a line of brown passes from the shoulder of the wing to the tertials. Weight full five ounces avoirdupois.

† This is a beautiful Gull, and was discovered on the Delaware below Philadelphia; it is a nondescript. Length nineteen and a half inches, extent three feet ten inches; the upper mandible has four indentations or blunt teeth, the lower three; corners of the mouth and the eyelids bright vermilion; head, neck, tail and lower parts pure white; wings, back and scapulars blue ash. Weight nineteen ounces avoirdupois.

‡ See history of Lewis and Clark's expedition, vol. ii, p. 192.

Our limits will only allow us to give a succinct account of some of the most interesting birds of the United States, for which we are chiefly indebted to Mr. Wilson's Work. It is necessary to premise that he follows, with some exceptions, the arrangement of Latham.

Turkey Vulture or *Turkey-buzzard*. This bird is found throughout the United States, but is most numerous in the Southern section of the union. The Turkey-buzzards are gregarious, peaceable and harmless: never offering any violence to a living animal, or, like the plunderers of the *Falco* tribe, depriving the husbandman of his stock. Their food is carrion, of which they eat so immoderately, that frequently they are incapable of flying, until they disgorge the contents of their stomach. The female lays from two to four eggs in a hollow tree, stump, or log; and brings forth her young in May. The young are extremely filthy.

Black Vulture or *Carrion-crow*. Mr. William Bartram was the first naturalist who indicated this bird as a distinct species from the preceding; notwithstanding which, all the Ornithologists of Europe have confounded it with the Turkey-buzzard. In the Atlantic States the Black Vulture is seldom found to the northward of Newbern, North Carolina; but inhabits the whole continent, to the southward, as far as Cape Horn. In the towns and villages of the Southern States, particularly Charleston, Georgetown, and Savannah, they may be seen sauntering about the streets, or sunning themselves on the roofs of the houses, and the fences; and may be said to be completely domesticated: being quite as familiar as the domestic poultry. They, as well as the Turkey-buzzards, are protected by a law or usage; and have a respect paid them as scavengers, whose labours are subservient to the public good. They devour animal food of all kinds, whether putrid or otherwise. They are highly useful birds. In those parts of the continent where the Alligators abound, they attend these dreadful amphibious animals, when they deposite their eggs in the sand, and devour them the first opportunity. The destruction of these birds ought to be prohibited under severe penalties.

White-headed or *Bald Eagle*. This distinguished bird, as he is the most beautiful of his tribe in this part of the world, and the adopted emblem of our country, is entitled to particular notice. He has been long known to naturalists, being common to both continents, and occasionally met with from a very high northern latitude, to the borders of the torrid zone, but chiefly in the vicinity of the sea, and along the shores and cliffs of our lakes and large rivers. Formed by nature for braving the severest cold; feeding equally on the produce of the sea, and of the land; possessing powers of flight capable of outstripping even the tempests themselves; unawed by any thing but man; and from the ethereal heights to which he soars, looking abroad, at one glance, on an immeasurable expanse of forests, fields, lakes and ocean, deep below him, he appears indifferent to the little localities of change of seasons; as in a few minutes he can pass from summer to winter, from the lower to the higher regions of the atmosphere, the abode of eternal cold, and thence descend at will to the torrid, or the arctic regions of the earth. He is therefore found at all seasons in the countries he inhabits; but prefers such places as have been mentioned above, from the great partiality which he has for fish.

In procuring these he displays, in a very singular manner, the genius and energy of his character, which is fierce, contemplative, da-

ring and tyrannical; attributes not exerted but on particular occasions; but when put forth, overpowering all opposition. Elevated on the high dead limb of some gigantic tree, that commands a wide view of the neighbouring shore and ocean, he seems calmly to contemplate the motions of the various feathered tribes that pursue their busy avocations below;—the snow white Gulls slowly winnowing the air; the busy Tringæ coursing along the sands; trains of Ducks streaming over the surface; silent and watchful Cranes, intent and wading; clamorous Crows, and all the winged multitudes that subsist by the bounty of this vast liquid magazine of nature. High over all these hovers one, whose action instantly arrests all his attention. By its wide curvature of wing, and sudden suspension in air, he knows it to be the *Fish Hawk*, settling over some devoted victim of the deep. His eye kindles at the sight, and balancing himself, with half opened wings, on the branch, he watches the result. Down, rapid as an arrow from heaven, descends the distant object of his attention, the roar of its wings reaching the ear as it disappears in the deep, making the surges foam around. At this moment the eager looks of the Eagle are all ardour; and levelling his neck for flight, he sees the Fish Hawk once more emerge, struggling with its prey, and mounting in the air with screams of exultation. These are the signal for our hero, who, launching into the air, instantly gives chase, soon gains on the Fish Hawk, each exerts his utmost to mount above the other, displaying in these rencounters the most elegant and sublime aerial evolutions. The unincumbered Eagle rapidly advances, and is just on the point of reaching his opponent, when, with a sudden scream, probably of despair and honest execration, the latter drops his fish; the Eagle poising himself for a moment, as if to take a more certain aim, descends like a whirlwind, snatches it in his grasp ere it reaches the water, and bears his ill-gotten booty silently away to the woods.*

The Bald Eagle frequently destroys young lambs and pigs; and will sometimes attack old sickly sheep, aiming furiously at their eyes. Ducks, Geese, Gulls and other sea fowl, are also seized with avidity. The most putrid carrion, when nothing better can be had, is acceptable. The nest of this species is generally fixed on a very large and lofty tree, often in a swamp or morass, and difficult to be ascended. It is large, being added to and repaired every season, until it becomes a black prominent mass, observable at a considerable distance. It is formed of large sticks, sods, earthy rubbish, hay, moss &c. The eggs are from two to three in number, of a whitish colour; the young are hatched early in March. It has at length been ascertained that the Sea or Gray Eagle is the present species, in a different stage of colour.

Ring-tail Eagle. This noble bird, in strength, spirit and activity, ranks among the first of its tribe. It is found, though sparingly dispersed, over the whole temperate and arctic regions, particularly the latter; breeding on high precipitous rocks; always preferring a mountainous country. The tail feathers of this bird are highly valued by the various tribes of American Indians, for ornamenting their calumets or pipes of peace. Hence this bird has been called by some writers the Calumet Eagle.

* If Mr. Wilson had never written a line except the above, he would have deserved the highest eulogy for a description which is perhaps unrivalled by the whole tribe of naturalists, from the age of Pliny to the present day. The composition is not only excellent, but the accuracy of the detail transcends all praise.

Fish Hawk or *Osprey*. This formidable, vigorous-winged, and well known bird, subsists altogether on the finny tribes that swarm in our bays, creeks and rivers; procuring his prey by his own active skill and industry; and seeming no farther dependant on the land than as a mere resting place, or, in the usual season, a spot of deposit for his nest, eggs and young. The Fish Hawk is migratory; arriving on the coasts of Newyork and Newjersey about the twenty-first of March, and retiring to the south about the twenty-second of September. Its nest is usually built on the top of a dead or decaying tree, sometimes not more than fifteen, often upwards of fifty feet, from the ground. About the first of May the female begins to lay her eggs, which are commonly three in number, sometimes only two, and rarely four. This species is considered the most numerous of its genus within the United States. There is one singular trait in the character of this bird, which is worthy of record. The Purple Grakles or Crow Blackbirds, are permitted by the Fish Hawk to build their nests among the interstices of the sticks of which his own is constructed. Several pair of Grakles taking up their abode there, like humble vassals around the castle of their chief, laying, hatching their young, and living together in mutual harmony. We have seen no less than five of these nests so situated, and one or two on an adjoining tree. The Crows and Jays devour the eggs, and sometimes the young, of the Grakles; and all the Hawks, except the generous and noble Fish Hawk, murder, at every opportunity, the birds themselves. Hence these birds, during the important periods of incubation and nutrition, have been directed to seek that protection which they can find no where else; and under the guardianship of the Fish Hawk they are safe from every enemy, except the tyrant Man. How strikingly does this exemplify the superintending care of the God of Nature!

Marsh Hawk. This Hawk, and several others, particularly the White-breasted Hawk, *F. Leverianus*, are common in the winter season, among our meadows and marshes; where they render an essential service, by destroying multitudes of the Mice, which are so injurious to the meadows and their embankments. Our Graziers and Farmers would do well to protect these birds; for notwithstanding they now and then bear away a vagrant chicken, yet the good they do more than counterbalances their bad deeds.

Great-footed Hawk. This is the celebrated Peregrine Falcon, formerly so greatly esteemed for its use in Falconry. It is called along our coast the Duck Hawk, from its skill in knocking down the Ducks when on the wing. It flies with astonishing rapidity.

Snow Owl. This great northern hunter inhabits the coldest and most dreary regions of the northern hemisphere on both continents. He is often seen in the United States during the severity of winter. The usual food of this species is Hares, Grouse, Rabbits, Ducks, Mice, and even Carrion. Unlike most of his tribe he hunts by day as well as by twilight. The female measures two feet in length, and five feet two inches in extent.

Great-horned Owl. This noted and formidable bird is found in almost every quarter of the United States. His favourite residence, however, is in the dark solitudes of deep swamps covered with a growth of gigantic timber; and here, as soon as evening draws on, and mankind retire to rest, he sends forth such sounds as seem scarcely to belong to this world, startling the solitary pilgrim as he slum-

bers by his forest fire, "Making night hideous." He preys on Rabbits, Squirrels, Rats, Mice, Partridges, Small Birds and Chickens. The nest of this species is generally placed in the fork of a tall tree, sometimes in the hollow of a tree. Eggs four in number, of a pure white. The Great-horned Owl is not migratory.

Red Owl. This is another of our nocturnal wanderers, well known by its common name, the *Little Screech Owl*; and noted for its melancholy, quivering kind of wailing in the evenings, particularly towards the latter part of summer and autumn, near the farm house. They roost during the day in thick evergreens, such as the Pine, Cedar &c., and sometimes will take up their abode in a vacant pigeon house, or martin box, and occupy the same situation for several successive seasons. They construct their nest in the hollow of a tree, and lay four, pure white eggs.

Great American Shrike or Butcher-bird. The character of this bird is entitled to no common degree of respect. His activity is visible in all his motions; his courage and intrepidity beyond every other bird of his size, the King-bird excepted; and in affection for his young he is surpassed by no other. He attacks the largest Hawk or Eagle with a resolution truly astonishing; so that all of them respect him; and on every occasion decline the contest. As the snows of winter approach, he descends from the mountainous forests, and from the regions of the north, to the more cultivated parts of the country, hovering about the hedge-rows, orchards and meadows, and disappears again early in April. It breeds in the interior; the female lays six eggs, and produces her young in June. This species preys occasionally on small birds, which he sticks on thorns that he may tear them to pieces with greater ease; but his common food, in the summer, appears to be grasshoppers. The habit of the Shrike, of seizing and impaling grasshoppers and other insects on thorns, has given rise to an opinion, that he places their carcasses there by way of baits, to allure small birds to them, while he himself lies in ambush to surprise and destroy them. This is a mistake.

Carolina Parrot or Parakeet. Of one hundred and sixty-eight kinds of Parrots enumerated by European writers as inhabiting the various regions of the globe, this is the only species found native within the territory of the United States. They are not often found to the eastward of the Allegany ridge; but are numerous on the Great and Little Miami, and at Big-bone Lick, thirty miles above the mouth of Kentucky river. In the fall, when their favourite cockle burrs are ripe, they swarm along the high grounds of the Mississippi, above New Orleans, for a great extent. They fly very much like the Wild Pigeon, in close compact bodies, and with great rapidity, making a loud and outrageous screaming, not unlike that of the Red-headed Woodpecker. Their flight is sometimes in a direct line; but most usually circuitous, making a great variety of elegant and easy serpentine meanders, as if for pleasure. They are particularly attached to the large sycamores, in the hollow of the trunks and branches of which they generally roost, thirty or forty, and sometimes more, entering at the same hole. Here they cling close to the sides of the tree, holding fast by the claws, and also by the bills. They appear to be fond of sleep, and often retire to their holes during the day, probably to take their regular *siesta*. They regularly visit the salines or salt-licks, to drink the salt water, of which they, as well as the Wild Pigeons, are remarkably fond. The food of this species is ripe fruits,

the seeds of the Cypress tree and hackberry, beech nuts and cockle burrs. What is called by Europeans the Illinois Parrot, *P. pertinax*, is the young bird of this species, in its imperfect colours.

Raven. Found all over the habitable parts of America. Is more numerous in the interior, than on the coast. Along the Lakes they abound; and were seen in immense multitudes by Lewis and Clark's party on their whole route across the continent.

Common Crow. This is perhaps the most generally known, and least beloved, of all our land birds; having neither melody of song, nor beauty of plumage, nor excellence of flesh, nor civility of manners to recommend him; on the contrary, he is branded as a thief and a plunderer; a kind of black-coated vagabond, who hovers over the fields of the industrious, fattening on their labours; and by his voracity often blasting their expectations. Hated as he is by the farmer, watched and persecuted by almost every bearer of a gun, who all triumph in his destruction, had not heaven bestowed on him intelligence and sagacity far beyond common, there is reason to believe that the whole tribe, in these parts at least, would long ago have ceased to exist. The Crow is a constant attendant on agriculture, and a general inhabitant of the cultivated parts of North America.

It is in the month of May, and until the middle of June, that this species is most destructive to the corn-fields, digging up the newly planted grains of Maize, pulling up by the roots those that have begun to vegetate, and thus frequently obliging the farmer to replant, or lose the benefit of the soil; and this sometimes twice, and even three times, occasioning a considerable additional expense and inequality of harvest. No mercy is now shewn him. The myriads of worms, moles, mice, caterpillars, grubs and beetles which he has destroyed, are altogether overlooked on these occasions. Detected in robbing the hens' nests, pulling up the corn, and killing the young chickens, he is considered as an outlaw, and sentenced to destruction. But the great difficulty is how to put this sentence in execution. His watchfulness, and jealous sagacity in distinguishing a person with a gun, are notorious to every one.

Towards the close of summer, the parent Crows with their new families, forsaking their solitary lodgings, collect together, as if by previous agreement, when evening approaches. About an hour before sunset they are first observed, flying somewhat in Indian file, in one direction, at a short height above the tops of the trees, silent and steady, keeping the general curvature of the ground, continuing to pass sometimes till after sunset, so that the whole line of march would extend for many miles. The most noted Crow roost with which we are acquainted, is near Newcastle, on an island in the river Delaware, known by the name of the *Pea-patch*. This is a low flat alluvial spot of a few acres, elevated but a little above high water mark, and covered with a thick growth of reeds. This appears to be the grand rendezvous or head quarters, of the greater part of the Crows within forty or fifty miles of the spot. It is entirely destitute of trees, the Crows alighting and nestling among the reeds, which by these means are broken down and matted together. The noise created by these multitudes, both in their evening assembly, and re-ascension in the morning; and the depredations they commit in the immediate neighbourhood of this great resort, are almost incredible. Whole fields of corn are sometimes laid waste by thousands alighting on it at once, with appetites whetted by the fast of the preceding night; and the

utmost vigilance is unavailing to prevent, at least, a partial destruction of this their favourite grain. Like the stragglers of an immense, undisciplined and rapacious army, they spread themselves over the fields, to plunder and destroy wherever they alight. It is here that the character of the Crow is universally execrated; and to say to the man who has lost his crop of corn by these birds, that *Crows are exceedingly useful for destroying vermin*, would be as consolatory as to tell him who had just lost his house and furniture by the flames, that *fires are excellent for destroying bugs*. Besides grain, insects and carrion, the Crows feed on frogs, tadpoles, moles, mice, birds' eggs and their young, small fish, lizards and shell fish; with the last they frequently mount to a great height, dropping them on the rocks below, and descending after them to pick up the contents. The same habit is observable in the Raven, some species of Gulls, and the Sea-side or Fish Crow.

Fish Crow. This is another roving inhabitant of our coasts, ponds and river shores; pretty numerous in some districts; though always confounded with the foregoing, until Mr. Wilson introduced it as a distinct species. Though having a general resemblance to his brother, yet he appears not to possess his bad qualities. His food is chiefly fish, and the animal matter that is found along the shores. The voice of this species is very different from that of the Common Crow, being more hoarse and guttural, and uttered as if something stuck in their throat. They are smaller than the Common Crow, but of the same colour.

Magpie. This bird is much better known in Europe than in this country, where it has not been long discovered; although it is now found to inhabit a wide extent of territory, and in great numbers. The Magpie unites in its character courage and cunning, turbulence and rapacity. Not inelegantly formed, and distinguished by gay as well as splendid plumage, he has long been noted in those countries where he commonly resides; and his habits and manners are there familiarly known. He is particularly pernicious to plantations of young oaks, tearing up the acorns; and also to birds, destroying great numbers of their eggs and young, even young chickens, partridges, grouse and pheasants. It is perhaps on this last account that the whole vengeance of the game laws has lately been let loose upon him, in some parts of Britain; as appears by accounts from that quarter, where premiums, it is said, are offered for his head, as an arch poacher; and penalties inflicted on all those who permit him to breed on their premises.

Lewis and Clark's party first met with the Magpie near the great bend of the Missouri, and found that the number of these birds increased as they advanced. Pike observed them in immense numbers, and was not a little incommoded by their pilfering and rapacity. "Our horses," says he, "were obliged to scrape the snow away to obtain their miserable pittance; and, to increase their misfortunes, the poor animals were attacked by the magpies, who, attracted by the scent of their sore backs, alighted on them, and in defiance of their wincing and kicking, picked many places quite raw. The difficulty of procuring food rendered these birds so bold as to light on our men's arms, and eat meat out of their hands."* This species build their nests in trees, and they are composed of small sticks, leaves, grass

* Pike's Journal, p. 170.

&c. lined with wool, hair and feathers. The eggs are usually five, of a bluish brown, freckled with reddish brown. Captain Lewis observes that the nests of the Bald Eagles, where the Magpies abound, are always accompanied by those of two or three of the latter, who are their inseparable attendants.*

The *Baltimore-bird*, as Catesby informs us, has been named from its colours, which are black and orange, being those of the arms or livery of Lord Baltimore, formerly proprietary of Maryland. From the singularity of its colours, and the construction of its nest, it is generally known, and, as usual, honoured with a variety of names, such as Hang-nest, Hanging-bird, Golden Robin, Fire-bird, &c. It is a beautiful bird, and adds much interest to the scenery of the American Farm.

The *Purple Grackle* or Crow Blackbird is well known to every farmer of the northern and middle states. About the twentieth of March the Grackles visit Pennsylvania from the south, fly in loose flocks, frequent swamps and meadows, and follow in the furrows after the plough; their food at this season consisting of worms, grubs and caterpillars, of which they destroy prodigious numbers, as if to recompence the husbandman before hand for the havock which they intend to make among his crops of Indian corn. Every industrious farmer complains of the mischief committed on his corn by the Blackbirds; though, were the same means used, as with Pigeons, to take them in clap nets, multitudes of them might thus be destroyed; and the products of them in market, in some measure, indemnify him for their depredations. As some consolation, however, to the cultivator, I can assure him, that were I placed in his situation, I should hesitate whether to consider these birds most as friends or enemies, as they are particularly destructive to almost all the noxious worms, grubs and caterpillars that infest his fields, which, were they allowed to multiply unmolested, would soon consume nine-tenths of all the production of his labour, and desolate the country with the miseries of famine. Is not this a striking proof that the Deity hath created nothing in vain; and that it is the duty of man to avail himself of their usefulness, and guard against their bad effects as securely as possible, without indulging in the barbarous, and even impious wish for their utter extermination?

Ivory-billed Woodpecker. This majestic and formidable species, in strength and magnitude stands at the head of the whole class of Woodpeckers hitherto discovered. He may be called the king or chief of his tribe; and nature seems to have designed him a distinguished characteristic in the superb carmine crest, and bill of polished ivory with which she has ornamented him. His eye is brilliant and daring; and his whole frame so admirably adapted to his mode of life, and method of procuring subsistence, as to impress on the mind of the examiner the most reverential ideas of the Creator. His manners have also a dignity in them superior to the common herd of Woodpeckers. Trees, shrubbery, orchards, rails, fence posts and old prostrate logs, are alike interesting to these, in their humble and indefatigable search for prey; but the royal hunter now before us, scorns the humility of such situations, and seeks the most towering trees of the forest; seeming particularly attached to those prodigious cypress swamps, whose crowded giant sons stretch their bare and blasted or

* History of the Expedition, vol. i, p. 198.

moss-hung arms midway to the skies. In these almost inaccessible recesses, amid ruinous piles of impending timber, his trumpet-like note and loud strokes resound through the dreary wilds, of which he seems the sole lord and inhabitant. Wherever he frequents he leaves numerous monuments of his industry behind him. We there see enormous pine trees with cart-loads of bark lying around their roots, and chips of the trunk itself in such quantities as to suggest the idea that half a dozen of axe-men had been at work there for the whole morning. The body of the tree is also disfigured with such numerous and so large excavations, that one can hardly conceive it possible for the whole to be the work of a Woodpecker. With such strength, and an apparatus so powerful, what havoc might he not commit, if numerous, on the most useful of our forest trees! And yet with all these appearances, and much of vulgar prejudice against him, it may be fairly questioned whether he is at all injurious; or, at least, whether his exertions do not contribute most powerfully to the protection of our timber. Examine closely the tree where he has been at work, and you will soon perceive, that it is neither from motives of mischief nor amusement that he slices off the bark, or digs his way into the trunk. The sound and healthy tree is not the least object of his attention: the diseased, infested with insects, and hastening to putrefaction, are his favourites; there the deadly crawling enemy have formed a lodgement, between the bark and tender wood, to drink up the very vital juice of the tree. It is the ravages of these vermin which the intelligent proprietor of the forest deplures, as the sole perpetrators of the destruction of his timber. Would it be believed that the larvæ of an insect or fly, no larger than a grain of rice, should silently, and in one season, destroy some thousand acres of pine trees, many of them from two to three feet in diameter, and a hundred and fifty feet high! Yet whoever passes along the high road from Georgetown to Charleston, in South Carolina, about twenty miles from the former place, can have striking and melancholy proofs of this fact. In some places the whole woods, as far as you can see around you, are dead, stripped of the bark, their wintry-looking arms and bare trunks bleaching in the sun, and tumbling in ruins before every blast, presenting a frightful picture of desolation. And yet ignorance and prejudice stubbornly persist in directing their indignation against the bird now before us, the constant and mortal enemy of these very vermin, as if the hand that probed the wound to extract its cause, should be equally detested with that which inflicted it. Until some effectual preventive, or more complete mode of destruction can be devised against these insects and their larvæ, I would humbly suggest the propriety of protecting, and receiving with proper feelings of gratitude, the services of this and the whole tribe of Woodpeckers, letting the odium of guilt fall to its proper owners.

The Ivory-billed Woodpecker is not migratory; he is seldom found to the northward of Virginia; the Carolinas are his favourite states.

Downy Woodpecker. This is the smallest of our Woodpeckers, and is generally known by the appellation of the *Sapsucker*. The principal characteristics of this little bird are diligence, familiarity, perseverance, and a strength and energy in the head and muscles of the neck, which are truly astonishing. A serious charge has been brought against him by the naturalists of Europe, viz. that he is almost constantly boring and digging into apple trees; and that he is the most destructive to the orchards of his whole genus. The first

part of this charge I shall not pretend to deny ; how far the other is founded in truth will appear in the sequel. Of all our Woodpeckers none rids the apple trees of so many vermin as this, digging off the moss which the negligence of the proprietor had suffered to accumulate, and probing every crevice. In fact the orchard is his favourite resort in all seasons ; and his industry is unequalled, and almost incessant, which is more than can be said of any other species we have. In the autumn he is particularly fond of boring the apple trees for insects, digging a circular hole through the bark just sufficient to admit his bill, after that a second, third, &c. in pretty regular horizontal circles round the body of the tree ; these parallel circles of holes are often not more than an inch or an inch and a half apart, and sometimes so close together, that I have covered eight or ten of them at once with a dollar. From nearly the surface of the ground up to the first fork, and sometimes far beyond it, the whole bark of many apple trees are perforated in this manner, so as to appear as if made by successive discharges of buck-shot ; and our little Woodpecker is the principal perpetrator of this supposed mischief. I say *supposed*, for so far from these perforations of the bark being ruinous, they are not only harmless, but I have good reason to believe they are really beneficial to the health and fertility of the tree. In more than fifty orchards which I have myself carefully examined, those trees which were marked by the Woodpecker (for some trees they never touch, perhaps because not penetrated by insects) were uniformly the most thriving, and seemingly the most productive ; many of these were upwards of sixty years old, their trunks completely covered with holes, while the branches were broad, luxuriant, and loaded with fruit. Of *decayed* trees more than three fourths were untouched by the Woodpecker. Several intelligent farmers, with whom I have conversed, candidly acknowledge the truth of these observations, and with justice look upon these birds as beneficial ; but the most common opinion is that they bore the trees to suck the sap, and so destroy its vegetation ; though pine and other resinous trees, on the juices of which it is not pretended they feed, are often found equally perforated. Were the *sap* of the tree their object, the saccharine juice of the birch, the sugar maple, and several others, would be much more inviting, because more sweet and nourishing than that of either the pear or apple tree ; but I have not observed one mark on the former for ten thousand that may be seen on the latter ; besides the early part of spring is the season when the sap flows most abundantly ; whereas it is only during the months of September, October and November, that Woodpeckers are seen so indefatigably engaged in orchards, probing every crack and crevice, boring through the bark, and what is worth remarking, chiefly on the south and south-west sides of the tree, for the eggs and larvæ deposited there by the countless swarms of summer insects. These if suffered to remain, would prey upon the very vitals, if I may so express it, of the tree, and in the succeeding summer give birth to myriads more of their race, equally destructive.

Here then is a whole species, I may say genus, of birds, which Providence seems to have formed for the protection of our fruit and forest trees from the ravages of vermin ; which every day destroy millions of these noxious insects that would otherwise blast the hopes of the husbandman ; and which even promote the fertility of the tree ; and in return, are proscribed by those who ought to have been their pro-

tectors; and incitements and rewards held out for their destruction! Let us examine better into the operations of nature, and many of our mistaken opinions, and groundless prejudices, will be abandoned for more just, enlarged and humane modes of thinking.

The *Belted Kingfisher* is a general inhabitant of the banks and shores of all our fresh water rivers from Hudson's Bay to Mexico; and is the only species of its tribe found within the United States. This last circumstance, and its characteristic appearance, make it as universally known here, as its elegant little brother, the common Kingfisher of Europe, is in Britain. Like the love-lorn swains of whom poets tell us, he delights in murmuring streams and falling waters; not however merely that they may sooth his ear, but for a gratification somewhat more substantial. Amidst the roar of the cataract, or over the foam of a torrent, he sits perched upon an overhanging bough, glancing his piercing eye in every direction below for his scaly prey, which with a sudden circular plunge he sweeps from their native element, and swallows in an instant. His voice, which is not unlike the sound produced by the twirling of a watchman's rattle, is naturally loud, harsh and sudden; but it is softened by the sound of the brawling streams and cascades about which he generally rambles. Mill-dams are particularly visited by this feathered fisher; and the sound of his pipe is as well known to the miller as the rattling of his own hopper.

Marsh Wren. This little bird is remarkable for its notes, and curiously constructed nest. Standing on the reedy borders of the Schuylkill, or Delaware in the month of June, you hear a low crackling sound, something similar to that produced by air bubbles forcing their way through mud or boggy ground when trod upon: this is the *song* of the Marsh Wren. But as among the human race it is not given to one man to excel in every thing, and yet each, perhaps, has something peculiarly his own; so among birds we find a like distribution of talents and peculiarities. The bird now before us, if deficient and contemptible in singing, excels in the art of *design*, and constructs a nest, which, in durability, warmth and convenience, is scarcely inferior to one, and far superior to many, of its more musical brethren. This is formed outwardly of wet rushes mixed with mud, well inter-twisted, and fashioned into the form of a cocoa nut. A small hole is left two-thirds up, for entrance, the upper edge of which projects like a pent-house over the lower, to prevent the admission of rain. The inside is lined with fine soft grass, and sometimes feathers; and the outside, when hardened by the sun, resists every kind of weather. This nest is generally suspended among the reeds, above the reach of the highest tides, and is tied so fast in every part to the surrounding reeds, as to bid defiance to the winds and the waves. The eggs are usually six, of a dark fawn colour, and very small. The young leave the nest about the twentieth of June, and they generally have a second brood in the same season. They migrate to the southward in the month of August, and return to Pennsylvania in May.

Humming-bird. Though this interesting and beautiful genus of birds comprehends upwards of seventy species, all of which, with a very few exceptions, are natives of America and its adjacent islands, it is yet singular, that the species now before us, the *Trochilus colubria*, should be the only one of its tribe that ever visits the territory of the United States. According to the observations of Mr. John Abbot of Georgia, this species makes its first appearance at Savannah, from

the south, about the twenty-third of March; two weeks earlier than it does in the county of Burke, sixty miles higher up the country towards the interior; and at least five weeks sooner than it reaches Philadelphia. As it passes on to the northward as far as the interior of Canada, where it is seen in great numbers, the wonder is excited how so feebly constructed and delicate a little creature can make its way over such extensive regions of lakes and forests, among so many enemies, all its superiors in strength and magnitude. But its very minuteness, the rapidity of its flight, which almost eludes the eye, and that admirable instinct, reason, or whatever else it may be called, and daring courage which Heaven has implanted in its bosom, are its guides and protectors. In these we may also perceive the reason, why an all-wise Providence has made this little hero an exception to a rule which prevails almost universally through nature, viz. that the smallest species of a tribe are the most prolific. The Eagle lays two, sometimes three, eggs; the Crow five; the Titmouse seven or eight; the small European Wren fifteen; the subject of this article *two*: and yet the last is abundantly more numerous than the European Wren.

The Ruby-throated Humming-bird is so well known, that a description of its splendid plumage and interesting habits is unnecessary. Its food is the honey of flowers and insects.

The *Red-winged Starling*, or Swamp Blackbird, as it is usually called, is scattered over the whole of the United States. About the twentieth of March, or earlier if the season be open, they begin to enter Pennsylvania in numerous, though small, parties. They continue to frequent the low borders of creeks, swamps and ponds, till about the middle of April, when they separate in pairs to breed. Towards the beginning or middle of August, the young birds begin to fly in flocks; and before the commencement of September these flocks have become numerous and formidable, and the young ears of Indian corn, being then in their soft, succulent, milky state, present a temptation that cannot be resisted. Reinforced by numerous and daily flocks from all parts of the interior, they pour down on the low countries in prodigious multitudes. Here they are seen, like vast clouds, wheeling and driving over the meadows and devoted corn fields, darkening the air with their numbers. It may be well supposed that the loss of the cultivator, by these rapacious visitors, is very great: whole fields have sometimes been laid waste in the space of a few days. Various modes have been put in practice to destroy the Blackbirds; and there are not a few who conceive that the extermination of the whole race would be a public benefit. To such we would observe that the Creator has made nothing in vain; and that however a *few* may suffer from the depredations of these birds, yet the good offices they confer upon the farmers *in general*, in ridding their fields of myriads of worms, insects and their larvæ, the silent but deadly enemies of all vegetation, whose secret attacks are more to be dreaded than the combined forces of the whole feathered tribes together, ought to awaken different feelings from those which would incite to utter extermination.

Mocking-bird. This celebrated and extraordinary bird, in extent and variety of vocal powers, stands unrivalled by the whole feathered songsters of this or perhaps any other country. His plumage has nothing gaudy or brilliant in it; and, had he nothing else to recommend him, would scarcely entitle him to notice, but his figure is

well proportioned, and even handsome. The ease, elegance, and rapidity of his movements, the animation of his eye, and the intelligence he displays in listening to, and laying up lessons from, almost every species of the feathered creation within his hearing, are really surprising, and mark the peculiarity of his genius. To these qualities we may add that of a voice full, strong and musical, and capable of almost every modulation, from the clear mellow tones of the Wood Thrush, to the savage scream of the Bald Eagle. In measure and accent he faithfully follows his originals. In force and sweetness of expression, he greatly improves upon them. In his native groves, mounted on the top of a tall bush or half grown tree, in the dawn of the morning, while the woods are already vocal with a multitude of warblers, his admirable song rises pre-eminent over every competitor. The ear can listen to *his* music alone, to which that of all the others seems a mere accompaniment. Neither is this strain altogether imitative. His own native notes, which are easily distinguishable by such as are well acquainted with those of our various song birds, are bold and full, and varied seemingly beyond all limits. They consist of short expressions of two, three, or at the most five or six syllables; generally interspersed with imitations, and all of them uttered with great emphasis and rapidity; and continued, with undiminished ardour, for half an hour, or an hour, at a time. His expanded wings and tail, glistening with white, and the buoyant gaiety of his action, arresting the eye, as his song most irresistably does the ear.

The native notes of the Mocking-bird have considerable resemblance to those of the Brown Thrush or Thrasher, but may easily be distinguished by their greater rapidity, sweetness, energy of expression and variety. Both, however, have in many parts of the United States, particularly in those to the south, obtained the name of *Mocking-bird*. The Brown Thrush, from its inferiority of song, being called the French, and the other the English Mocking-bird. A mode of expression probably originating in the prejudices of our forefathers, with whom every thing *French* was inferior to every thing *English*.

Wood Thrush or Wood Robin. This sweet and solitary songster inhabits the whole of North America from Hudson's Bay to the peninsula of Florida. He arrives in Pennsylvania about the twentieth of April, and returns to the south about the beginning of October. As soon as he arrives he announces his presence in the woods. With the dawn of the succeeding morning, mounting to the top of some tall tree that rises from a low thick-shaded part of the woods, he pipes his few but clear and musical notes in a kind of ecstasy; the prelude or symphony to which strongly resembles the double-tonguing of a German flute, and sometimes the tinkling of a small bell. The whole song consists of five or six parts, the last note of each of which is in such a tone as to leave the conclusion evidently suspended; the finale is finely managed, and with such charming effect as to sooth and tranquillize the mind, and to seem sweeter and mellowed at each successive repetition. Rival songsters, of the same species, challenge each other from different parts of the wood, seeming to vie for softer tones and more exquisite responses. During the burning heat of the day, they are comparatively mute; but in the evening the same melody is renewed, and continued long after sunset. Even in dark wet and gloomy weather, when scarce a single chirp is heard from any other bird, the clear notes of the Wood Thrush

thrill through the dropping woods, from morning to night; and it may truly be said that the sadder the day the sweeter is his song.

The favourite haunts of this species are low, thick-shaded hollows, through which a small brook or rill meanders, overhung with alder bushes that are mantled with vines. He delights to trace the irregular windings of the brook, where by the luxuriance of foliage the sun is completely shut out, or only plays in a few interrupted beams on the glittering surface of the water. Near such a scene he generally builds his nest, in a laurel, or alder bush; the eggs are from four to five, of an uniform light blue, without any spots.

The common *Robin* is one of our earliest songsters; even in March, while the snow yet dapples the fields, and flocks of them are dispersed about, some few will mount a post or stake of the fence, and make short and frequent attempts at their song. This song has some resemblance to the notes of the Thrasher or Ferruginous Thrush; but if deficient in point of execution, he possesses more simplicity, and makes up in zeal what he wants in talent. The notes of the Robin are the prelude to the grand general concert, that is about to burst upon us from the woods, fields and thickets, whitened with blossoms, and breathing fragrance.

The *Cat-bird* is one of our earliest morning songsters, beginning generally before break of day, and hovering from bush to bush with great sprightliness, when there is scarce light sufficient to distinguish him. His notes are more remarkable for singularity than for melody. They consist of short imitations of other birds, and other sounds; but his pipe being rather deficient in clearness and strength of tone, his imitations fail where these are requisite. Upon the whole, though we cannot arrange him with the grand leaders of our vernal choristers, yet he well merits a place among the most agreeable general performers. This bird has derived its name from the circumstance of its common note resembling the mewing of a cat.

Cardinal Grosbeak. This is one of our most common cage birds; and is very generally known, not only in North America, but even in Europe. The opinion which so generally prevails in England, that the music of the groves and woods of America, is far inferior to that of Europe, we cannot admit to be correct. We cannot with fairness draw a comparison between the depth of the forest in America, and the cultivated fields of England; because, it is a well known fact, that singing birds seldom frequent the former, in any country. But let the latter places be compared with the like situations in the United States, and the superiority of song would justly belong to the western continent. The few of our song birds that have visited Europe extort admiration from the best judges. "The notes of the Cardinal Grosbeak, says Latham, are almost equal to those of the Nightingale." Yet these notes, clear and excellent as they are, are far inferior to those of the Wood Robin; and even to those of the Brown Thrush. Our inimitable Mockingbird is also acknowledged, by the Europeans, to be fully equal to the song of the Nightingale "in its whole compass." Yet these are not one tenth of the number of our singing birds. Could these people be transported to the borders of our woods and settlements, in the month of May, about half an hour before sunrise, such a ravishing concert would greet their ears as they have no conception of.

Rice Bunting. This is the Boblink of the eastern and northern states, and the Rice and Reed-bird of Pennsylvania and the southern

states. Though small in size, he is not so in consequence : his coming is hailed by the sportsman with pleasure ; while the careful planter looks upon him as a devouring scourge, and worse than a plague of locusts. Three good qualities, however, entitle him to our notice, particularly as these three are rarely found in the same individual—his plumage is beautiful, his song highly musical, and his flesh excellent. In the Fall, the Reed-birds resort, in prodigious numbers, to the shores of our large rivers, where grows the *Zizania aquatica*, or Wild oats, on the seeds of which they feed, and soon become excessively fat. They are said to equal the far-famed *Ortolan* of Europe.

Cow Bunting. The most remarkable trait in the character of this species, is the unaccountable practice it has of dropping its eggs into the nests of other birds, instead of building and hatching for itself ; and thus entirely abandoning its progeny to the care and mercy of strangers. More than two thousand years ago it was well known that the Cuckoo of Europe never built herself a nest, but dropped her eggs in the nests of other birds ; but among the thousands of different species that spread over that and other parts of the globe, no other instance of the same uniform habit has been found to exist, until discovered in the bird now before us. The Cow-bird generally lays but one egg in one place, though instances have been known of one nest containing two of her eggs.

The *Scarlet Tanager* is perhaps the most showy foreigner of all those that regularly visit us from the torrid regions of the south. He is drest in the richest scarlet, with wings and tail of a deep black. On or about the first of May he makes his appearance in Pennsylvania. He rarely approaches the habitations of man, unless perhaps to the orchard, where he sometimes builds, or to the cherry trees in search of fruit. The depth of the woods is his favourite abode. This species builds its nest on the horizontal branch of a tree ; the eggs are three in number, of a dull blue, spotted with brown or purple.

Among all the birds that inhabit our forests, there is none that strikes the eye of a stranger, or even a native, with so much brilliancy as this. Seen among the green leaves, with the light falling strongly on his plumage, he really appears beautiful. If he has little of melody in his notes to charm us, he has nothing in them to disgust. His manners are modest, easy and inoffensive. He commits no depredations on the property of the husbandman ; but rather benefits him by the daily destruction of many noxious insects. He is a striking ornament to our rural scenery, and none of the meanest of our rural songsters. Such being the true traits of his character, we shall always with pleasure welcome this beautiful, inoffensive stranger, to our orchards, groves and forests.

Pewee Flycatcher. This well-known bird is one of our earliest spring visitants, arriving in Pennsylvania about the first week in March, and continuing with us until October. It begins to build about the twentieth of March, on some projecting part under a bridge—in a cave—in an open well, five or six feet down—under a shed—in a spring-house, and such like places ; the eggs are five, pure white, with two or three dots of red near the great end. These birds sometimes rear three broods in one season.

The notes of the Pewee, like those of the Blue-bird, are pleasing, not for any melody they contain, but from the ideas of spring and returning verdure, with all the sweets of this lovely season, which are associated with his simple but lively ditty. Towards the middle

of June he becomes nearly silent ; and late in the Fall he gives us a few farewell and melancholy repetitions, that recal past imagery, and make the decayed and withered face of nature appear still more melancholy.

Warbling Flycatcher. This sweet little warbler arrives in Pennsylvania about the middle of April, and inhabits the thick foliage of orchards and high trees ; its voice is soft, tender and soothing, and its notes flow in an easy, continued strain that is extremely pleasing. It is often heard among the weeping willows and lombardy poplars of our cities ; is rarely observed in the woods, but seems particularly attached to the society of man.

Blue-bird. The pleasing manners and sociable disposition of this little bird entitle him to particular notice. As one of the first messengers of spring, bringing the charming tidings to our very doors, he bears his own recommendation always along with him, and meets with a hearty welcome from every body. The usual spring and summer song of the Blue-bird is a soft, agreeable and oft-repeated warble, uttered with open, quivering wings, and is extremely pleasing. In his motions and general character he has great resemblance to the Robin Red-breast of Britain ; and had he the brown olive of that bird, instead of his own blue, he could scarcely be distinguished from him. Like him he is known to almost every child ; and shews as much confidence in man, by associating with him in summer, as the other by his familiarity in winter. His society is courted by the inhabitants of the city and country, and few neglect to provide for him a snug little dwelling. For this favour he more than repays them by the cheerfulness of his song, and the multitude of injurious insects which he daily destroys. In the month of October, his song changes to a single plaintive note, as he passes over the many-coloured woods ; and its melancholy air recalls to our minds the approaching decay of the face of nature. Even after the trees are stript of their leaves, he still lingers over his native fields, as if loth to leave them. About the middle or end of November, few or none of these birds are seen ; but with every return of mild and open weather, we hear their plaintive note amidst the fields, or in the air, seeming to deplore the devastations of Winter. Indeed the Blue-bird appears scarcely ever totally to forsake us ; but to follow fair weather through all its journeyings till the return of spring.

House Wren. This well known and familiar bird arrives in Pennsylvania about the middle of April ; and about the eighth of May it begins to build its nest, sometimes in the wooden cornice under the eaves, or in a hollow cherry-tree ; but most commonly in small boxes, in or near the garden, to which it is extremely partial, for the great number of caterpillars and other larvæ which are there found. The immense number of insects which this social little bird removes from the garden and fruit trees, ought to endear him to every cultivator, even if he had nothing else to recommend him ; but his notes, loud, sprightly, tremulous, and repeated every few seconds with great animation, are extremely agreeable. The eggs of this species are from six to nine in number, of a red purplish flesh colour. They generally raise two broods in a season : the first about the beginning of June, the second in July.

Winter Wren. This species, in some respects, resembles the foregoing, and is by the generality of common observers supposed to be the same, but it is quite a different bird. It visits us from the

north in the month of October, sometimes remaining with us all the winter, and is always observed early in the spring, on the route back to its breeding place. During his residence here he frequents the projecting banks of creeks, old roots, decayed logs; he approaches the farm house, rambles about the wood-pile, creeping among the interstices like a mouse. He even ventures into our cities, and is often observed in company with the Snow-birds and winter Sparrows that frequent our gardens. It is not yet known whither this species retires to breed.

The *Purple Martin* is a general inhabitant of the United States, and a particular favourite wherever he takes up his abode. His summer residence is universally among the habitations of man; who, having no interest in his destruction, and deriving considerable advantage as well as amusement from his company, is generally his friend and protector. Wherever he comes, he finds some hospitable retreat fitted up for his accomodation and that of his young.

The *Purple Martin*, like the *King-bird*, is the terror of *Crows*, *Hawks* and *Eagles*. These he attacks whenever they make their appearance, and with such vigour and rapidity, that they instantly have recourse to flight. Our farmers would do well to provide suitable boxes for this noble bird, who will keep at a respectful distance all those winged plunderers who are unceasingly on the watch for an opportunity to regale themselves upon the poultry. The *Martins* have young but once in a season; and the male does not attain to his perfect plumage until the third or fourth year.

Barn Swallow. There are but few persons in the United States unacquainted with this gay, innocent and active little bird. Indeed the whole tribe are so distinguished from the rest of small birds by their sweeping rapidity of flight, their peculiar aerial evolutions of wing, over our fields and rivers, and through our very streets, from morning to night, that the light of heaven itself, the sky, the trees, or any other common objects of nature, are not better known than the *Swallows*. We welcome their first appearance with delight, as the faithful harbingers and companions of flowery spring, and ruddy summer; and when, after a long, frost-bound and boisterous Winter, we hear it announced, that "*The Swallows are come!*" what a train of charming ideas are associated with the simple tidings!

It has been long asserted, and the doctrine of torpidity has had many supporters, that the *Swallows* winter in the mud, at the bottom of lakes and mill-ponds. That the ignorant should believe in such absurdities, is not surprising, but that men of intelligence and science should for a moment indulge the preposterous idea, excites our astonishment in no ordinary degree. The *Geese*, the *Ducks*, the *Cat-bird*, and even the *Wren* which creeps about our outhouses in summer like a mouse, are all acknowledged to be migratory, and to pass to southern regions at the approach of Winter;—the *Swallows* alone, on whom Heaven has conferred superior powers of wing, must sink in torpidity at the bottom of our rivers, or doze all winter in the caverns of the earth! Is not this true, ye wise men of Europe and America, who have published so many credible narratives on this subject? Is the organization of a *Swallow* less delicate than that of a man? Can a bird, whose vital functions are destroyed by a short privation of pure air, and its usual food, sustain, for six months, a situation where the most robust man would perish in a few hours or moments? Away with such absurdities!—They are unworthy of a

serious refutation.—It has at length been ascertained that our Swallows pass the period of Winter at Honduras, myriads of them assembling together at their roosting places, which are usually amid the rushes of the watery savannas.*

Chimney Swallow. This species is peculiarly our own; and strongly distinguished from all the rest of our Swallows by its figure, flight and manners. Like all the rest of its tribe in the United States, it is migratory, arriving in Pennsylvania late in April, or early in May, and dispersing themselves over the whole country wherever there are vacant chimneys sufficiently high and convenient for their accommodation. The nest of this bird is of singular construction, being formed of very small twigs, fastened together, not with the gum of trees as is generally supposed, but with a strong adhesive glue, which is secreted by two glands, one on each side of the hind head, and mixes with the saliva. With this glue, which becomes hard as the twigs themselves, the whole nest is thickly besmeared. The nest itself is small and shallow, and attached by one side or edge to the wall, and is totally destitute of the soft lining with which the nests of the other Swallows are so plentifully supplied. The eggs are generally four, and white. They commonly have two broods in the season.

Night-hawk. This bird in Virginia, and some of the southern districts, is called a Bat; the name Night-hawk is usually given it in the middle and northern states. On the last week in April, the Night-hawk commonly makes its appearance at Philadelphia. They soon after disperse generally over the country, from the sea shore to the mountains; and are seen towards evening, in pairs, playing about, high in air, pursuing their prey—wasps, flies, beetles, and various other winged insects of the larger sort. About the middle of May the female begins to lay: the eggs are placed on the bare ground, are commonly two, of a dirty bluish white, and marked with innumerable touches of dark olive brown.

The Night-hawk is a bird of strong and vigorous flight, and of large volume of wing. It often visits the city, darting and squeaking over the streets at a great height, and diving perpendicularly with a loud booming sound, very much resembling that produced by blowing strongly into the bunghole of an empty hogshead. This noise is caused by the sudden expansion of his capacious mouth, while he passes through the air. The female never precipitates herself in the manner of the male.

Whip-poor-will. This is a singular and very celebrated species, universally noted over the greater part of the United States for the loud reiterations of his favourite call in Spring; and yet personally he is but little known, most people being unable to distinguish this from the preceding species; and some insisting that they are the same. We must refer the reader to Mr Wilson's history of this bird, wherein it appears that there has been strange confusion among naturalists with respect to our three species of the *Caprimulgus* genus, and in which it is satisfactorily shewn that this is a distinct species.

The *Chuck-will's-widow* is rarely found to the north of James River, in Virginia, on the sea-board, or of Nashville, in the state of Tennessee, in the interior. It arrives on the coast of Georgia about the middle of March, and in Virginia early in April. It commences its singular

* Henderson's Honduras, p. 119.

call generally in the evening, soon after sunset, and continues it, with short occasional interruptions, for several hours. Towards morning these repetitions are renewed, and continue until dawn has fairly appeared. During the day it is altogether silent. This call instantly attracts the attention of a stranger, and is strikingly different from that of the Whip-poor-will. In sound and articulation it seems plainly to express the words which have been applied to it, *Chuck-will's-widow*, pronouncing each syllable leisurely and distinctly, putting the principal emphasis on the last word. In a still evening this bird may be heard at the distance of nearly a mile, the tones of its voice being stronger and more full than those of the Whip-poor-will, who utters his with much greater rapidity.

This singular genus of birds, formed to subsist on the superabundance of nocturnal insects, are exactly and surprisingly fitted to their peculiar mode of life. Their flight is low, to accommodate itself to their prey; silent, that they may be the better concealed, and sweep upon it unawares; their sight most acute in the dusk, when such insects are abroad; their evolutions something like those of the Bat, quick and sudden; their mouths capable of prodigious expansion, to seize with more certainty, and furnished with long branching hairs or bristles,* serving as palisades to secure what comes between them. Reposing so much during the heats of day, they are much infested with vermin, particularly about the head, and are provided with a comb on the inner edge of the middle claw, with which they are often employed in ridding themselves of these pests.

The *Passenger* or *Wild Pigeon* inhabits a wide and extensive region of North America, on this side of the Rocky Mountains, beyond which to the westward, we have not heard of their having been seen. They abound in the country round Hudson's Bay; spread over the whole of Canada; were seen by Lewis and Clark's party, near the Great Falls of the Missouri; were also met with in the interior of Louisiana by Pike; and extend their range as far south as the gulf of Mexico; occasionally visiting or breeding in almost every quarter of the United States.

But the most remarkable characteristic of these birds is their associating together, both in their migrations, and also during the period of incubation, in such prodigious numbers as almost to surpass belief; and which has no parallel among any other of the feathered tribes with which naturalists are acquainted.† I have witnessed these migrations in the Genesee country—often in Pennsylvania, and also in various parts of Virginia, with amazement; but all that I had then seen of them were mere straggling parties, when compared with the congregated millions which I have since beheld in our western forests, in the States of Ohio, Kentucky and the Indiana territory. These fertile and extensive regions abound with the nutritious beech nut which constitutes the chief food of the Wild Pigeon. In seasons when these nuts are abundant, corresponding multitudes of Pigeons may be confidently expected. It sometimes happens that having consumed the whole produce of the Beech trees in an extensive district, they discover another at the distance, perhaps, of sixty or eighty miles, to which they regularly repair every morning, and return as

* The Night-hawk is an exception to some of these remarks, its flight being high, and its mouth destitute of the bristles.

† The reader will observe that Mr Wilson is the narrator.

regularly in the course of the day, or in the evening, to their place of general rendezvous, or as it is usually called, the *roosting place*. These roosting places are always in the woods, and sometimes occupy a large extent of forest. When they have frequented one of these places for some time, the appearance it exhibits is surprising. The ground is covered to the depth of several inches with their dung; all the tender grass and underwood destroyed; the surface strewn with large limbs of trees broken down by the weight of the birds clustering one above another; and the trees themselves, for thousands of acres, killed as completely as if girdled with an axe. The marks of this desolation remain for many years on the spot; and numerous places could be pointed out where for several years after scarce a single vegetable made its appearance.

The *breeding place* differs from the roosting place in its greater extent. In the western countries above mentioned, these are generally in beech woods, and often extend in nearly a straight line across the country for a great way. Not far from Shelbyville, in the state of Kentucky, a few years ago, there was one of these breeding places, which stretched through the woods in nearly a north and south direction; was several miles in breadth, and was said to be upwards of *forty* miles long. In this tract almost every tree was furnished with nests, wherever the branches could accommodate them. As soon as the young were fully grown, and before they left the nests, numerous parties of the inhabitants came with wagons, axes, beds, cooking utensils, and encamped for several days at this immense nursery. Several of them informed me, that the noise in the woods was so great as to terrify their horses, and that it was difficult for one person to hear another speak, without bawling in his ear. The ground was strewn with broken limbs of trees, eggs and squabs, which had been precipitated from above, and on which herds of hogs were fattening. Hawks, Vultures and Eagles were sailing about in great numbers, and seizing the squabs from their nests at pleasure; while from twenty feet upwards to the tops of the trees, the view through the woods presented a perpetual tumult of crowding and fluttering multitudes of Pigeons, their wings roaring like thunder, mingled with the frequent crash of falling timber: for now the axemen were at work cutting down those trees that seemed to be most crowded with nests, and contrived to fell them in such a manner, that in their descent they might bring down several others; by which means the falling of one large tree sometimes produced two hundred squabs, little inferior in size to the old Pigeons, and almost one mass of fat. On some single trees upwards of one hundred nests were found, each containing *one* young only, a circumstance in the history of this bird not generally known to naturalists. It was dangerous to walk under these flying and fluttering millions, from the frequent fall of large branches, broken down by the weight of the multitudes above, and which in their descent often destroyed numbers of the birds themselves; while the clothes of those engaged in traversing the woods, were completely covered with the excrements of the Pigeons.

I passed for several miles through this same breeding place, where every tree was spotted with nests, the remains of those above described. In many instances I counted upwards of ninety nests on a single tree; but the Pigeons had abandoned this place for another, sixty or eighty miles off towards Green river, where they were said at that

time to be equally numerous.* From the great numbers that were constantly passing over head to or from that quarter, I had no doubt of the truth of this statement. The mast had been chiefly consumed in Kentucky, and the Pigeons, every morning a little before sunrise, set out for the Indiana territory, the nearest part of which was about sixty miles distant. Many of these returned before ten o'clock, and the great body generally appeared a little after noon. I had left the public road to visit the remains of the breeding place near Shelbyville, and was traversing the woods with my gun, on my way to Frankfort, when about one o'clock the Pigeons, which I had observed flying the greater part of the morning northerly, began to return in such immense numbers as I never before had witnessed. Coming to an opening by the side of a creek called the Benson, where I had a more uninterrupted view, I was astonished at their appearance. They were flying with great steadiness and rapidity, at a height beyond gunshot, in several strata deep, and very compact. From right to left, as far as the eye could reach, the breadth of this vast procession extended, seeming every where equally crowded. Curious to determine how long this appearance would continue, I took out my watch to note the time, and sat down to observe them. I continued there for more than an hour, but instead of a diminution of this prodigious procession, it seemed rather to increase both in numbers and rapidity; and, anxious to reach Frankfort before night, I rose and went on. About four o'clock in the afternoon I crossed the Kentucky river, at the town of Frankfort, at which time the living torrent above my head seemed as numerous and as extensive as ever. Long after this I observed them in large bodies that continued to pass for six or eight minutes, and these again were followed by other detached bodies, all moving in the same south-east direction, till after six in the evening. The great breadth of front which this mighty multitude preserved would seem to intimate a corresponding breadth of their breeding place, which by several gentlemen who had lately passed through part of it, was stated to me at several miles.

The vast quantity of mast which these multitudes consume, is a serious loss to the bears, pigs, squirrels and other dependants on the fruits of the forests. I have taken from the crop of a single Wild Pigeon, a good handful of the kernels of beech nuts, intermixed with acorns and chesnuts. To form a rough estimate of the daily consumption of one of these immense flocks, let us first attempt to calculate the numbers of that above mentioned as seen in passing between Frankfort and the Indiana territory. If we suppose this column to have been one mile in breadth, (and I believe it to have been much more) and that it moved at the rate of one mile in a minute, four hours, the time it continued passing, would make its whole length two hundred and forty miles. Again, supposing that each square yard of this moving body comprehended three Pigeons; the square yards in the whole space multiplied by three, would give *two thousand two hundred and thirty millions, two hundred and seventy-two thousand Pigeons*. An almost inconceivable multitude, and yet probably far below the actual amount. Computing each of these to consume half a pint of mast daily, the whole quantity at this rate would equal *seventeen millions, four hundred and twenty-four thousand*

* This was in the year 1810. Mr Wilson was then on his journey to New Orleans.

bushels per day. Heaven has wisely and graciously given to these birds rapidity of flight, and a disposition to range over vast uncultivated tracts of the earth; otherwise they must have perished in the districts where they resided, or devoured the whole productions of agriculture, as well as those of the forests.

Every Spring, as well as Fall, more or less of these birds are seen in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia, and particularly in New Jersey; but it is only once in several years that they appear in very great bodies; and this commonly when the snows are heavy to the north, the winter here more than usually mild, and forests nuts abundant.

Turtle Dove. This is a favourite bird with all those who love to wander among our woods in spring, and listen to their varied harmony. They will hear many a singular and sprightly performer, but none so mournful as this. The hopeless wo of confirmed sorrow swelling the heart of female innocence itself, could not assume tones more sad, more tender and affecting. Its notes are four: the first is somewhat the highest and preparatory, seeming to be uttered with an inspiration of the breath, as if the afflicted creature were just recovering its voice from the last convulsive sobs of distress; this is followed by three long, deep and mournful moanings, that no person of sensibility can listen to without sympathy. There is, however, nothing of real distress in all this: quite the reverse. The bird who utters it wantons by the side of his beloved partner, or invites her by his call to some favourite and shady retreat; it is the voice of love, of faithful connubial affection, for which the whole family of Doves are so celebrated. The flesh of this bird is considered superior to that of the Wild Pigeon; but its seeming confidence in man, the tenderness of its notes, and the innocence attached to its character, are with many its security and protection; with others, however, the tenderness of its *flesh*, and the sport of shooting, overcome all other considerations. The Turtle Dove lays two pure white eggs. The male and female unite in feeding the young, and they have rarely more than two broods in the same season.

The *Ground Dove* is a native of North and South Carolina, Georgia, Louisiana, Florida, Mexico, and the West Indies. In the last it is frequently kept in cages; is esteemed excellent for the table, and honoured by the French planters with the name of Ortolan. It is a bird of passage, retiring to the islands, and to the more southerly parts of the continent, on the approach of winter, and returning to its former haunts early in April. It is of a more slender and delicate form, and less able to bear the rigours of cold, than either of the two preceding species, both of which are found in the northern regions of Canada, as well as in the genial climate of Florida.

Wild Turkey. It was to America that the Europeans were indebted for the original stock of the domestic Turkey; a bird which has been spread over the greater part of the civilized world, and which contributes largely to the gratifications of life. Wild Turkeys were formerly numerous in Pennsylvania; but population has driven to the westward these valuable birds; and at present what few remain are found chiefly in the Allegany ridge, and the unsettled parts to the west. In the states bordering on the Ohio and the Mississippi they are yet found in considerable numbers, though much decreased of late years, and ere long they will even there be very rare. In the Floridas and Louisiana they are numerous, particularly in the latter, but it does not appear that they extend much farther than the Big-bend of

the Missouri. The Indians who accompanied Lewis and Clark's party on their return from the Pacific, knew nothing of this bird. The Turkey in its wild state becomes much larger, and its flesh is in greater esteem, than when it is domesticated. It is not unusual to kill them weighing upwards of thirty pounds.

Ruffed Grouse. This is the *Partridge* of the eastern states, and the *Pheasant* of Pennsylvania and the southern districts. It is known in almost every quarter of the United States, and appears to inhabit a very extensive range of country. Its favourite places of resort are high mountains, covered with the Balsam pine, hemlock, and such like evergreens. Unlike the Pinnated Grouse, it always prefers the woods; is seldom or never found in open plains; but loves the pine-sheltered declivities of mountains near streams of water. The manners of the Pheasant are solitary; they are seldom found in coveys of more than four or five together, and more usually in pairs or singly. The *drumming*, as it is usually called, is a singularity of this species. This is performed by the male alone. The bird standing on an old prostrate log, lowers his wings, erects his expanded tail, contracts his throat, elevates the two tufts of feathers on the neck, and inflates his whole body something in the manner of the Turkey-cock, strutting and wheeling about with great stateliness. After a few manœuvres of this kind, he begins to strike his body with his stiffened wings in short and quick strokes: these are at first slow and distinct, but gradually increase in rapidity till they run into each other, resembling the rumbling sound of very distant thunder, dying away gradually on the ear. After a few minutes pause this is repeated; and in a calm day it may be heard nearly half a mile off. This drumming is most common in the spring, and is the call of the cock to his favourite female.

The Ruffed Grouse hatches in May; the eggs are from nine to fifteen in number, of a brownish white, and nearly as large as those of a pullet. The young leave the nest as soon as hatched, and are directed by the cluck of the mother, very much in the manner of the common hen. These birds are very common in the Philadelphia markets, and their flesh is much esteemed.

Pinnated Grouse. This species in the middle states is simply termed *Grouse*;* and the epithet *pinnated* has been applied to it by naturalists from the circumstance of the neck of the male being furnished with supplemental wings, each composed of eighteen feathers, which the bird can raise or depress at pleasure. He has another peculiarity which naturalists appear to have overlooked: this is two bags of yellow skin, one on each side of the neck, which, when the bird is at rest, hang in loose wrinkled folds; but when these bags are inflated, in breeding time, they are equal in size, and very much resemble in colour, a middle sized, fully ripe orange. By means of this curious apparatus, which is very observable several hundred yards off, he is enabled to produce the extraordinary sound, which is called *bumming*; this is uttered only in the season of love, and is for the purpose of attracting the female.

This rare bird, though an inhabitant of different and very distant districts of North America, is extremely particular in selecting his place of residence; pitching only upon those tracts whose features and productions correspond with his modes of life; and avoiding immense

* In some places the common people call them Heath-hens.

intermediate regions that he never visits. Accordingly we find these birds on the Grouse plains of New Jersey, as well as on the Brushy plains of Long Island—among the pines and shrub-oaks of Pocano, in Northampton county, Pennsylvania—over the whole extent of the Barrens of Kentucky; on the luxuriant plains and prairies of the Indiana territory and Louisiana. In all these places preserving the same singular habits. It is much to be regretted that attempts to domesticate this exquisite bird have hitherto failed of success. There can be little doubt that domestication may be affected if proper means are employed; and we may add that the object is highly worthy of further experiments.

The *Quail* or *Partridge* is a general inhabitant of North America, from the northern parts of Canada and Nova Scotia, in which latter place it is said to be migratory, to the extremity of the peninsula of Florida. They are numerous in Louisiana; and Captain Henderson mentions them as being plenty near the Balize at the Bay of Honduras. Where they are not too much persecuted by the sportsmen, they become almost half domesticated; approach the barn, particularly in winter, and sometimes mix with the poultry to glean up a subsistence. The Partridge, like all the rest of the gallinaceous order, flies with a loud whirring sound, occasioned by the shortness, concavity and rapid motion of its wings, and the comparative weight of its body. The flesh of this bird is peculiarly white, tender and delicate; though it is dry, and not as much esteemed as that of the Pheasant.

Roseate Spoonbill. This stately and elegant bird inhabits the sea shores of America from Brazil to Georgia. It wades about in quest of shell fish, marine insects, small crabs and fish. In pursuit of these it occasionally swims and dives.

The *Whooping Crane* is the tallest and most stately species of all the feathered tribes of the United States. It is the watchful inhabitant of extensive salt marshes, desolate swamps, and open morasses, in the neighbourhood of the sea. Its migrations are regular, and of the most extensive kind, reaching from the shores and inundated tracts of South America to the arctic circle. In these immense periodical journeys they pass at such a prodigious height in the air as to be seldom observed. They have, however, their resting stages on the route to and from their usual breeding places, the regions of the north. A few sometimes make their appearance in the marshes of Cape May, in December, and on Egg island in the Delaware bay, where they are known by the name of *Storks*. Some linger in these marshes the whole winter, setting out for the north about the breaking up of the ice. During their stay they wander along the marsh and muddy flats of the shore in search of marine worms, moving occasionally from place to place, with a low and heavy flight, a little above the surface; and have at such times a very formidable appearance. Now and then they utter a loud, clear and piercing cry, which may be heard at the distance of two miles. They have also various modulations of this singular note, from the peculiarity of which they derive their name.

Least Bittern. This is the smallest known species of the whole tribe of Herons. It is commonly found in fresh water meadows, and rarely visits the salt marshes. When alarmed it seldom flies far, but takes shelter among the reeds or long grass. In the autumn this

bird becomes very fat, and is then excellent eating, little inferior to a Snipe or Rail.

The *Long-billed Curlew* appears in the salt marshes of New Jersey about the middle of May, on its way to the north ; and in September, on its return from its breeding place. Their food consists chiefly of small crabs, which they are very dexterous at probing for, and pulling out of the holes, with their long bills : they also feed on those small sea snails so abundant in the marshes, and on various worms and insects. They are likewise fond of bramble berries, frequenting the fields and uplands in search of this fruit, on which they get very fat, and are then tender and good eating, altogether free from the sedgy taste with which their flesh is usually tainted while they feed in the salt marshes.

The *Esquimaux Curlew*, or as it is called by our gunners on the coast, the *Short-billed Curlew*, arrives in large flocks on the coast of New Jersey early in May from the south ; frequents the salt marshes, muddy shores and inlets, feeding on small worms and minute shell fish. They fly high, and with great rapidity. In the month of June, while the dewberries are ripe, these birds sometimes frequent the fields in company with the Long-billed kind, where brambles abound, soon get very fat, and are at that time excellent eating. In the early part of spring, and indeed during the whole time that they frequent the marshes, they are much less esteemed for the table. They retire to the north to breed.

Red-breasted Snipe. This bird has a considerable resemblance to the common or *English Snipe*, not only in its general form, size and colours, but likewise in the excellence of its flesh, which is in high estimation. It differs, however, greatly from the common Snipe in its manners, and in many other peculiarities. It arrives on the coast of New Jersey early in April, is seldom or never seen inland ; early in May it proceeds to the north to breed, and returns by the latter part of July. During its stay here it flies in flocks, sometimes very high, and has then a loud and shrill whistle, making many evolutions over the marshes ; forming, dividing and reuniting. They sometimes settle in such numbers, and so close together, that upwards of eighty have been shot at one discharge of a musquet.

Semipalmated Snipe. This is one of the most noisy and noted birds that inhabit our salt marshes in summer. Its common name is the *Willet*, by which appellation it is universally known along the shores of New York, New Jersey, Delaware and Maryland, in all of which places it breeds in great numbers. The Willet is peculiar to America. It arrives from the south, on the shores of the middle states, about the twentieth of April ; and from that time to the last of July its loud and shrill reiterations of *Pill-will-willet*, resound, almost incessantly, along the marshes ; and may be distinctly heard at the distance of more than half a mile. About the twentieth of May the Willets begin to lay ; the eggs are usually four in number, very thick at the great end, and tapering to a narrower point at the other than those of the common hen ; they are excellent eating. Towards the fall, when these birds associate in large flocks, they become extremely fat, and are then accounted a great delicacy.

Common Snipe. This bird is well known to our sportsmen ; and, if not the same, has a very near resemblance to the common Snipe of Britain. It is usually known by the name of the *English Snipe*, to

distinguish it from the Woodcock, and others of the same genus. It arrives in Pennsylvania about the tenth of March, and remains in the low grounds for several weeks; the greater part then move off to the north, and to the higher inland districts, to breed. A few are occasionally found, and consequently breed, in our low marshes during the summer. When they first arrive they are usually lean; but when in good order they are excellent eating. These birds are not found in the salt marshes of the coast, except on their borders, where there happen to be fresh water springs; consequently their flesh is never sedgy. In places where they are not sought after by epicures and sportsmen, they become tame, excessively fat, and are then an exquisite morsel.

Woodcock. This bird, like the preceding, is universally known to our sportsmen. It arrives in Pennsylvania early in March, sometimes sooner. During the day they keep to the woods and thickets, and at the approach of evening seek the springs, and open watery places to feed in. They soon disperse themselves over the country to breed. About the beginning of July, particularly in long continued hot weather, they descend to the marshy shores of our large rivers, their favourite springs and watery recesses inland being chiefly dried up. To the former of these retreats they are pursued by the merciless sportsman, flushed by dogs, and shot down in considerable numbers. This species of amusement, when eagerly followed, is still more laborious and fatiguing than that of Snipe-shooting; and from the nature of the ground, or cripple as it is usually called, viz. deep mire, intersected with old logs which are covered and hid from sight by high reeds, weeds and alder bushes, the best dogs are soon tired out. The Woodcock usually begins to lay in April. The nest is placed on the ground, in a retired part of a field, or the woods, frequently at the root of an old stump, and generally near a cripple. The female lays four, sometimes five, eggs, of a dun clay colour, thickly marked with spots of brown, and interspersed with others of a very pale purple. In a moderate season the Woodcock has been known to lay in February.

This bird, in its general figure and manners, greatly resembles the Woodcock of Europe, but it is considerably less, is differently marked below, and is a distinct species. Its food consists of various larvæ and other aquatic worms, for which during the evening it is almost continually turning over the leaves with its bill, or searching in the bogs. Its flesh is highly prized. The flight of the Woodcock is slow, and he is easily shot. The notion that there are two species of Woodcock in this country probably originated from the great difference of size between the male and female, the latter being considerably the larger.

Red-breasted Sandpiper. Birds of the *Sandpiper* genus are not distinguished, by common observers, from the *Snipes*, so nearly do they resemble each other. Naturalists, however, have given us the characteristic designations of each, which convince us of the importance of system in our inquiries into the operations of Nature. Yet it must be confessed that we sometimes meet with species, the generic characters of which are so equivocal, that we are not a little confounded in our endeavours to class them. Hence the necessity of studying *living* nature in order to determine in a case involving doubt or uncertainty. The bird before us from its general appearance would be

called a Snipe, but when we take into view its habits, and the length of its bill, we are at no loss to discover its relationship to the family of the *Tringa* or Sandpipers.

The common name of this species, on our coast, is the *Gray-back*; and among the gunners it is a particular favourite, being generally a plump, tender and excellent bird for the table; and, consequently, bringing a good price in market. The *Gray-backs* do not breed on the shores of the middle states. Their first appearance is early in May. They remain a few weeks, and disappear until October. They usually keep in small flocks, and alight in a close body together on the sand flats, where they search for the small bivalve shells. They do not run about in the water as much as some others, nor with the same rapidity, but appear more tranquil and deliberate. In the month of November they retire to the south.

Spotted Sandpiper. This very common species arrives in Pennsylvania about the twentieth of April, tracing the courses of our creeks and streams towards the interior. It is remarkable for perpetually wagging the tail; for whether running on the ground, or on the fences, along the rails, or in the water, this motion seems continual. About the middle of May they resort to the adjoining corn fields to breed; the eggs are four, and large in proportion to the size of the bird. The young run as soon as freed from the shell. The flight of the *Spotted Sandpiper* is usually low. It skims along the surface of the water, while it utters its rapid notes of *weet weet weet*, seldom steering in a direct line up or down the river, but making a long circuitous sweep, stretching a great way out, and gradually bending in again to the shore.

The *Purre* is one of the most numerous of our *Strand-birds*, or *Sand Snipes*, as they are usually called, that frequent the sandy beach, on the frontiers of the ocean. They trace the flowing and recession of the waves with great nimbleness, wading and searching among the loosened particles for their favourite food, which is a small thin oval bivalve shell-fish, of a white or pearl colour, and not larger than the seed of an apple. During the latter part of summer and autumn, these minute shell-fish constitute the food of almost all those busy flocks that run with such activity along the sands, among the flowing and retreating waves. It is amusing to observe with what adroitness they follow and elude the tumbling surf, while at the same time they seem wholly intent on collecting their food. These birds, in conjunction with several others, sometimes collect together in such numbers, as to seem, at a distance, a cloud of thick smoke, varying in form and appearance every instant, while it performs its evolutions in air. As this cloud descends and courses along the shores of the ocean, with great rapidity, in a kind of serpentine flight, alternately throwing its dark and white colours to the eye, it forms a very grand and interesting appearance. At such times the gunners make prodigious slaughter among them; while, as the showers of their companions fall, the whole body often alight, or descend to the surface with them, till the sportsman is completely satiated with destruction. All the *Strand-birds* become very fat, and are good eating.

Black-bellied Plover. This bird is known in some parts of the country by the name of the large *Whistling Field Plover*. It generally makes its first appearance in Pennsylvania late in April; frequents

the countries towards the mountains ; seems particularly attached to newly ploughed fields, where it forms its nest of a few slight materials ; lays four eggs, and has frequently two broods in the same season. They feed on worms, grubs, winged insects, and various kinds of berries, particularly dewberries, and are considered excellent eating. About the beginning of September they abound on the plains of Long Island, and afford considerable amusement to the *cockney* sportsmen, who generally make their approaches to the birds by means of *wagons*. They have a loud whistling note ; often fly at a great height ; and are called by many gunners along the coast the Black-bellied Kildeer.

Golden Plover. This beautiful species visits the coast of New York and New Jersey in spring and autumn ; but does not, as far as has been discovered, breed in any part of the United States. Although they are occasionally found along our coast from Georgia to Maine, yet they are no where numerous ; and we have never met with them in the interior.

Kildeer Plover. This restless and noisy bird is known to almost every inhabitant of the United States, being a common and pretty constant resident. During the severity of winter, when snow covers the ground, it retreats to the sea shore, where it is found at all seasons ; but no sooner has the ice of the rivers broken up, than its shrill notes are again heard, either roaming about high in air, tracing the shore of the river, or running amidst the watery flats and meadows. Nothing can exceed the alarm and anxiety of these birds during the breeding season. Their cries of *kildeer, kildeer*, as they winnow the air over head, dive and course around you, or run along the ground counterfeiting lameness, are shrill and incessant. They lay usually four eggs, of a yellowish clay colour, thickly marked with blotches of black.

Pied Oyster-catcher. This singular species, although no where numerous, inhabits almost every sea shore, both on the new and the old continent, but is never found inland. It is the only one of its genus hitherto discovered. It frequents the sandy sea beach of New Jersey, and other parts of our Atlantic coast, in summer, in small parties of two or three pairs together. They are extremely shy, and, except about the season of breeding, will seldom permit a person to approach within gunshot. They walk along the shore in a watchful stately manner, at times probing it with their long wedge-like bills in search of small shell-fish. The small crabs called *Fiddlers*, that burrow in the mud at the bottom of inlets, are frequently the prey of the Oyster-catcher ; as are muscles, spout-fish, and a variety of other shell-fish and sea insects with which those shores abound. The principal food, however, of this bird, according to European writers, and that from which it derives its name, is the *Oyster*, which it is said to watch for, and snatch suddenly from the shells, whenever it surprises them sufficiently open. For this purpose the form of its bill seems very fitly calculated. Yet the truth of these accounts is doubted by the inhabitants of Egg-harbour, and other parts of our coast, who positively assert that it never frequents oyster-beds, but confines itself almost solely to the sands ; and this opinion I am inclined to believe correct, having myself uniformly found these birds on the smooth beach bordering the ocean, and on the higher dry and level sands, just beyond the reach of the summer

tides. On this last situation, where the dry flats are thickly interspersed with drifted shells, they lay three eggs in a slight hollow; the young are hatched about the twenty-fifth of May. This bird is the *Sea-pie* of navigators.

Clapper Rail. This is a very numerous and well known species, inhabiting our whole Atlantic coast from New England to Florida. It is designated by different names, such as the Mud-hen, Meadow-clapper, Big Rail, &c. Though occasionally found along the swampy shores and tide waters of our large rivers, yet its principal residence is in the salt marshes. It is a bird of passage, arriving on the coast of New Jersey about the twentieth of April, and retiring again late in September. The shores of New Jersey, within the beach, seem to be the favourite breeding places of these birds, as they are there acknowledged to be more than double the number of all other marsh fowl. These shores consist of an immense extent of flat marsh, covered with a coarse reedy grass, and occasionally overflowed by the sea, by which it is cut up into innumerable islands. The Mud-hen soon announces its arrival in the marshes, by its loud, harsh and incessant cackling, which very much resembles that of a Guinea-hen. This noise is more general during the night; and is said to be always greatest before a storm. About the twentieth of May they generally commence laying and building at the same time: the first egg being usually dropt in a slight cavity, lined with a little dry grass, which, as the number of the eggs increases to their usual compliment *ten*, is gradually added to, until the nest rises to the height of twelve inches or more. Over this the long salt grass is artfully arched and knit at the top, to conceal it from the view above. The eggs are excellent eating, surpassing those of the domestic hen. The height of laying is about the first of June, when the people of the neighbourhood go off to the marshes *an egging*, as it is called. So abundant are the nests of this species, and so dexterous are some persons at finding them, that one hundred dozen of eggs have been collected by one man in a day. The food of the Clapper Rail consists of small shell-fish, particularly those of the snail form, so abundant in the marshes; they also eat small crabs. Their flesh is dry, tastes sedgy, and will bear no comparison with that of the common Rail.

Common Rail or Sora. The natural history of the *Rail*, or as it is called in Virginia the *Sora*, and in South Carolina the *Coot*, is to the most of our sportsmen involved in profound and inexplicable mystery. It comes, they know not whence; and goes, they know not whither. No one can detect their first moment of arrival; yet all at once the reedy shores and grassy marshes of our large rivers swarm with them, thousands being sometimes found within the space of a few acres. These, when they do venture on wing, seem to fly so feebly, and in such short fluttering flights among the reeds, as to render it highly improbable to most people that they could possibly make their way over an extensive tract of country. Yet, on the first smart frost that occurs, the great body suddenly disappear.

The Rail or Sora belongs to a genus of birds of which about thirty different species are enumerated by naturalists; and these are distributed over almost every region of the habitable parts of the earth. Their general character is every where the same. They run swiftly, fly slowly, and usually with the legs hanging down; become extremely fat; are fond of concealment; and, wherever it is practicable,

prefer running to flying. Early in August, when the reeds along the shores of the Delaware have attained their full growth, the Rail resort to them in great numbers, to feed on the seeds of this plant, of which they, as well as the Reed-birds and several others, are immoderately fond. On their first arrival they are generally lean, and unfit for the table; but as the seeds ripen they rapidly fatten, and from the early part of September to the last of October they are excellent, and eagerly sought after. The usual method of shooting them in Pennsylvania, is as follows: The sportsman furnishes himself with a light bateau, and an experienced boatman, with a pole of twelve or fifteen feet long. About an hour or two before high water they enter the reeds, and each takes his post, the sportsman standing in the bow ready for action, the pole-man on the stern seat pushing the boat steadily through the reeds. The Rail generally spring singly, as the boat advances, at a short distance ahead, and are instantly shot down, while the boatman, keeping his eye on the spot where the bird fell, directs the bateau forward and picks up the game as the gunner is loading. The sport continues till an hour or two after high water. Several boats are sometimes within a short distance of each other, and a perpetual cracking of musquetry prevails along the whole reedy shores of the river and the islands. In these excursions it is not uncommon for an active and expert marksman to kill from six to ten dozen Rail in a tide. These birds, in common with many others, always migrate in the night; and hence the reason why many are at a loss to ascertain what becomes of them, when it is discovered that they have disappeared: as these observers cannot have *ocular* evidence of the migration, they still remain incredulous as to the fact. The first north-easter which takes place in the latter part of October, or beginning of November, the great body of the Rail depart; and it is then that these birds are found to be most abundant in Virginia and elsewhere to the south. The Rail, though considered a great delicacy by many, is yet far inferior to the Snipe.

The *Purple Gallinule* is found in the southern parts of our continent. In the state of Georgia it frequents the rice fields and marshes; it is rare, and extremely shy. In respect to its manners, it is said to be a docile bird when tamed; to feed with the poultry, and scratch the ground with its feet like the cock and hen. It will feed on many things, such as fruits, roots of plants and grain; will frequently stand on one leg, and lift the food to its mouth with the other, like a Parrot. The flesh is said to be exquisite in taste.

This is a most splendid bird: the head, part of the neck, throat and breast, are of a rich violet purple; the back and scapulars brownish green; the sides of the neck ultramarine; wings the same, tinged with green; the belly of a purplish black; the vent pure white; the naked crown, legs and feet are red; the bill of the same colour, tipped with yellow.

The *Coot* makes its appearance in Pennsylvania about the first of October. Among the muddy flats and islands of the river Delaware, which are periodically overflowed, and which are overgrown with the reed or wild oats and rushes, the Coots are found. They are not numerous, and are seldom seen, except their places of resort are covered with water: in that case they are generally found sitting on the fallen reed, waiting for the ebbing of the tide. Their food consists of various aquatic plants, seeds, insects and small fish. The

Coot swims remarkably well, and, when wounded, will dive like a Duck. It is known in Pennsylvania by the name of the Mud-hen.

American Avoset. This species arrives on the coast of Cape May late in April; rears its young, and departs to the south early in October. It almost constantly frequents the shallow pools in the salt marshes; wading about, often to the belly, in search of marine worms, snails, and various insects that abound among the soft muddy bottoms of the pools. It is a shy and noisy bird; and from its perpetual clamour it is called by the inhabitants of Cape May, the *Lawyer*. The nest of this species is generally fixed in a tuft of grass, at a short distance from one of the above mentioned pools; the eggs are four in number, of a dull olive colour, marked with large irregular blotches of black.

The *Long-legged Avoset* arrives on the coast of New Jersey about the same time as the foregoing; and frequents the like situations, in the salt marshes. But they are considerably more numerous than the American Avoset. They breed in small communities: the nests of six or eight pair being generally found in the vicinity of one of the pools. The eggs are also four in number, of a dark yellowish clay colour, thickly marked with large blotches of black. These nests are often placed within fifteen or twenty yards of each other; but the greatest harmony seems to prevail among the proprietors. While the females are sitting, the males are either wading through the ponds, or roaming over the adjoining marshes; but should a person make his appearance, the whole collect together in the air, flying with their long legs extended behind them, keeping up a continual yelping of *click, click, click*. Their flight is steady, and not in short sudden jerks like that of the Plover. The names by which this species is known on the coast, are the Stilt or Tilt, and Long-shanks.

Red Flamingo. This is a very singular bird; and is occasionally seen on the southern frontiers of the United States; but it is more common on the peninsula of East Florida. Its flesh is esteemed pretty good meat; and the young thought by some equal to a Partridge; but the greatest dainty is the tongue, which was esteemed by the ancients an exquisite morsel.

The *Great Northern Diver* or *Loon* is migratory in Pennsylvania. It is found along the coast as well as in the interior. They are commonly seen in pairs; and procure their food, which is fish, in the deepest water of our rivers, diving after it, and continuing under for a length of time. Being a wary bird, it is seldom they are killed, eluding their pursuers by their astonishing faculty of diving. They seem averse from flying, and are but seldom seen on the wing. The Loon is said to be restless before a storm; and an experienced master of a coasting vessel informed me that he always knew when a tempest was approaching by the cry of this bird, which is very shrill, and may be heard at the distance of a mile or more.

Black Skimmer or *Sheerwater*. This truly singular fowl is the only species of its tribe hitherto discovered. Like many others, it is a bird of passage in the United States; and makes its appearance on the shores of New Jersey early in May. Its favourite haunts are low sand bars, raised above the reach of the summer tides. On such places it usually breeds; the eggs, three in number, being placed in a hollow formed in the sand, without any materials. The Sheerwaters form themselves into small societies in the breeding season, which commences early in June; and it is not unusual to find the nests of

fifteen or twenty pair within the compass of half an acre. The females sit on them only during the night, or in wet and stormy weather.

The singular conformation of the bill of this bird has excited much surprise; and some writers, measuring the divine proportions of nature by their own contracted standards of conception, in the plenitude of their vanity have pronounced it to be "a lame and defective weapon." Such ignorant presumption, or rather impiety, ought to hide its head in the dust on a calm display of the peculiar construction of this singular bird, and the wisdom by which it is so admirably adapted to the purposes or mode of existence for which it was intended. The Sheerwater is formed for skimming, while on wing, the surface of the water for its food, which consists of small fish, shrimps, young fry, &c. whose usual haunts are near the shore, and towards the surface. That the lower mandible,* when dipt into and cleaving the water, might not retard the bird's way, it is thinned and sharpened like the blade of a knife; the upper mandible being at such times elevated above water, is curtailed in its length, as being less necessary, but tapering gradually to a point, that, in shutting, it may offer less opposition. To prevent inconvenience from the rushing of the water, the mouth is confined to the mere opening of the gullet, which indeed prevents mastication taking place there; but the stomach or gizzard, to which this business is solely allotted, is of uncommon hardness, strength and muscularity, far surpassing in these respects that of any other water bird with which we are acquainted. To all these is added a vast expansion of wing, to enable the bird to sail with sufficient celerity while dipping in the water. The general proportion of the length of our swiftest Hawks and Swallows, to their breadth, is as one to two; but in the present case, as there is not only the resistance of the air to overcome, but also that of the water, a still greater volume of wing is given: the Sheerwater measuring nineteen inches in length, and upwards of forty-four in breadth. In short, whoever has attentively examined this curious apparatus, and observed the possessor with his ample wings, long bending neck, and lower mandible occasionally dipt into and ploughing the surface, and the facility with which he procures his food, cannot but consider this exercise mere playful amusement when compared with the dashing immersions of the Tern, the Gull, or the Fish Hawk, who, to the superficial observer, appear so superiorly accommodated.

Goosander. This large and handsomely marked bird belongs to a genus different from that of the *Duck*, on account of the particular form and serratures of the bill. Naturalists have denominated it *Merganser*. In this country, the birds composing this genus are generally known by the name of Fishermen, or Fisher Ducks. The *Goosander* is called by many the Sheldrake. This bird is a winter inhabitant of our coast and rivers. They usually associate in small parties of six or eight, and are almost continually diving in search of food. From their common habit of feeding almost entirely on fin and shell-fish, their flesh is held in little estimation, both smelling and tasting strongly of fish. Four species of the genus *Mergus* are known to inhabit the United States, of which the *Goosander* is the

* The bill of a bird is composed of two parts, termed *mandibles*.

largest and most beautiful. All these birds live chiefly on fish, and consequently are unfit for the table.

The *Widgeon* is a prettily marked and sprightly species, very common in winter along our whole coast, from Florida to Rhode Island; but most abundant in Carolina, where it frequents the rice plantations. It is the constant attendant of the *Canvass-back Duck*, by the aid of whose labour it has ingenuity enough to contrive to make a good subsistence. The *Widgeon* is extremely fond of the tender roots of that particular species of aquatic plant on which the *Canvass-back* feeds, and for which that *Duck* is in the constant habit of diving. The *Widgeon*, who never dives for food, watches the moment of the *Canvass-back's* rising, and before the latter has the water well off his eyes, the former snatches the delicious morsel from his mouth and makes off. On this account the *Canvass-backs* and *Widgeons*, or as they are generally called, *Bald-pates*, live in a state of perpetual contention. The flesh of this species is excellent.

Red-headed Duck. This is another common associate of the *Canvass-back*, frequenting the same places, and feeding on the *stems* of the same grass, the latter eating only the *roots*. Its flesh is little inferior to that of the *Canvass-back*; and it is often sold in our market for this last mentioned bird. The *Red-headed Duck* is supposed to be the *Pochard* of Europe.

Summer Duck. This most beautiful of all our Ducks, has probably no superior among its whole tribe for richness and variety of colours. It is called the *Wood Duck*, from the circumstance of its breeding in hollow trees; and the *Summer Duck*, from its remaining with us during the summer. It rarely visits the sea shore, or salt marshes; its favourite haunts being the solitary, deep and muddy creeks, and mill-ponds of the interior. In Pennsylvania the female usually begins to lay late in April or early in May. Instances have been known wherein the nest was constructed of a few sticks laid in the fork of a tree; usually, however, the inside of a hollow tree that overhangs the water is selected for this purpose. The writer of this article visited an old truncated white oak, having a wide hollow six feet deep, which was tenanted by a pair of these Ducks. The eggs, thirteen in number, were of the colour of old polished ivory, and lay on the rotten wood, in a slight cavity, and covered with down. When the young are hatched, the mother carries them in her bill, one by one, to the margin of the water she intends to rear them in; and when the whole are collected she launches into the element, followed by her lively and delighted little brood. This beautiful species is easily domesticated; but its flesh is not in great esteem.

Eider Duck. This species has been long celebrated in Europe for the abundance and excellence of its *down*, which for softness, warmth, lightness and elasticity, surpasses that of all other Ducks. The quantity found in one nest more than filled the crown of a hat, yet weighed no more than three quarters of an ounce; and it is asserted that three pounds of this down may be compressed into a space scarcely bigger than a man's fist, yet it is afterwards so dilatable as to fill a quilt five feet square. These birds associate in flocks, generally in deep water, diving for shell fish, which constitute their principal food. They are numerous on the coast of Labrador, and are occasionally seen in the winter as far south as the capes of the Delaware.

Dusky Duck. This species is generally known by the name of the

Black Duck, being the most common, and most numerous of all those of its tribe that frequent the salt marshes. Their principal food, on the coast, consists of those minute snail shells, so abundant in the marshes. In our fresh water marshes, where they likewise abound, they feed upon the roots and seeds of the aquatic plants and insects. The Black Ducks of the coast are generally fatter than those which frequent our fresh water rivers; but the flesh of the latter is in greater esteem, in consequence of its being free from that *sedgy* taste which is so remarkable in the former. Their voice resembles that of the Mallard; but their meat is greatly inferior.

Mallard. This is the original stock of the common domesticated Duck, reclaimed immemorially from a state of nature, and now become so serviceable to man. It is found in every fresh water lake and river of the United States in winter; but seldom frequents the sea shores or salt marshes. The Mallard is an excellent bird.

Muscovy Duck. It was to America that the Europeans were indebted for this noble Duck, which is in such great esteem for the table. Its domesticated descendants are scattered over those parts of the world where good eating is appreciated; and the original stock is found in the southern parts of the continent of North America, and in Brazil.

Scaup Duck. This is a common Duck in our markets, and is generally known by the name of the *Blue-bill*. It is sometimes called the *Broad-bill*, and along the waters of the Chesapeake the *Black-head*. It is a great diver, and commonly feeds on the snails which abound in our fresh and salt marshes. When fat, its flesh is of tolerable flavour. The Blue-bills of the Chesapeake and its waters are infinitely preferable to those of the Delaware or the coast. This species is the last that leaves us in the spring for the purpose of breeding, numbers being annually seen as late as the middle of May.

Shoveller. If we except the singularly formed and disproportionate size of the bill, there are few Ducks more beautiful, or more elegantly marked than this. The excellence of its flesh, which is juicy, tender, and well tasted, is another recommendation to which it is equally entitled. It occasionally visits the coast; but is more commonly found on our lakes and rivers. It is one of our winter birds; and is not known to breed in any part of the United States.

Buffet-headed Duck. This pretty little species, usually known by the name of the *Butter-box*, or *Butter-ball*, from the circumstance of its becoming exceedingly fat, is common to the sea shores, rivers and lakes of the United States, in every quarter of the country, during autumn and winter. They feed much on shell-fish, shrimps, &c. The male exceeds the female in size, and greatly in beauty of plumage. They are dexterous divers, and fly with great velocity. Their flesh is good.

The *Blue-winged Teal* is the first of its tribe that returns to us in the autumn from its breeding place in the north. They are usually seen in September, along the shores of the Delaware, where they sit on the mud, close to the edge of the water, so crowded together that the gunners often kill great numbers at a single discharge. They fly rapidly; and when they alight they drop down suddenly, like the Snipe or Woodcock, among the reeds or on the mud. They feed eagerly on the seeds of the reed or wild oats, and become very fat. They are considered a great delicacy, and command a high price in our markets.

Green-winged Teal. This, like the preceding, is a fresh water Duck, common in our markets in autumn and winter. It frequents ponds, marshes, and the reedy shores of creeks and rivers. Is very abundant among the rice plantations of the southern states; flies in small parties, and feeds at night. It associates often with the Mallard, feeding on the seeds of various kinds of grapes and water plants, and also on the tender leaves of vegetables. Like the foregoing, its flesh is excellent.

Canvass-back Duck. This celebrated American species, as far as can be judged from the best figures and descriptions of foreign birds, is altogether unknown in Europe. It approaches nearest to the *Pochard* of Britain; but differs from that bird in being superior in size and weight, in the greater magnitude of its bill, and the general whiteness of its plumage. The Canvass-back arrives in the United States from the north about the middle of October; numbers descend to the Hudson and Delaware, but the great body of these birds resort to the numerous rivers belonging to, and in the neighbourhood of, the Chesapeake Bay, particularly the Susquehannah, the Patapsco, Potowmac and James' rivers, which appear to be their general winter rendezvous. At the Susquehannah they are called *Canvass-backs*, on the Potowmac *White-backs*, and on James' river *Sheldrakes*. They are seldom found at a great distance up any of these rivers, or even in the salt water bay; but in that particular part of tide water where a certain grass-like plant grows, on the roots of which they feed. This plant, which is said to be a species of *Valisineria*, grows on fresh water shoals of from seven to nine feet water, but never where these are occasionally dry, in long narrow grass-like blades of four or five feet in length; the root is white, and has some resemblance to small celery. This grass is in many places so thick that a boat can with difficulty be rowed through it, it so impedes the oars. Wherever this plant grows in abundance, the Canvass-backs may be expected in corresponding numbers. It occurs in some parts of the Hudson; in the Delaware near Gloucester, and in the vicinity of Petty's island, both places within sight of Philadelphia; and in most of the rivers that fall into the Chesapeake, to each of which particular places these Ducks resort; while in waters unprovided with this nutritive plant they are altogether unknown, or are only occasionally seen when on their migrations.

On the first arrival of these birds they are generally lean, but towards the beginning of November they are in pretty good order, and about the last of the month they are in perfection. They are excellent divers, and swim with great speed and agility. They sometimes assemble in such multitudes as to cover several acres of the river, and when they rise suddenly, produce a noise resembling distant thunder. They float about the shoals, diving and tearing up the grass by the roots, which is the only part they eat. They are extremely shy, and can rarely be approached unless by stratagem. When slightly wounded in the wing, they dive to such prodigious distances, and with such rapidity, continuing it so perseveringly, and with such cunning and active vigour, as almost always to render the pursuit hopeless. The Canvass-back, in the rich juicy tenderness of its flesh, and its delicacy of flavour, stands unrivalled by the whole feathered creation. It becomes so exceedingly fat, that when shot from a tolerable height it will often burst with the fall. Those killed in the waters of the Chesapeake are generally esteemed superior to all others; but the com-

piler of this article has shot them of equal fatness and flavour in the Delaware, although many will not admit that our Canvass-backs at all resemble those of the boasted Chesapeake. The inhabitants of New York have but lately discovered that *they* too have the legitimate Canvass-backs on their Hudson; though ignorance and prejudice from the south will doubtless stigmatize them as a spurious race, unworthy of the name. Yet it is true that in all these places this exquisite bird is found, and will continue to be found there, so long as its favourite food abounds. Would it not be worth the experiment to transplant this celebrated grass in other similar waters, in the hope of drawing thither the delicious Canvass-back? It has been ascertained that wheat will attract them. Some years since, a vessel, loaded with this grain, was wrecked at the entrance of Great Egg-harbour, in the autumn, and went to pieces. The Canvass-backs, before unknown to the people of Egg-harbour, at that time on their way from the north, collected in immense numbers, and fed upon the wheat, remaining as long as it lasted. At our public dinners, hotels, and particular entertainments, the Canvass-backs are universal favourites. They not only grace but dignify the table; and their very name conveys to the imagination of the eager epicure the most comfortable and exhilarating ideas. Hence on such occasions it has not been uncommon to pay from two to three dollars a pair for these Ducks; and, indeed, at such times, if they can they must be had, whatever may be the price.

The *Pintail Duck*, or as it is generally called, the *Sprigtail*, is a common Duck in our markets, but not in much esteem; it being seldom fat, although its flesh is generally tender. It is a shy and cautious bird; feeds on the mud flats, and in shallow fresh water marshes; but rarely visits the coast. Like the Mallard and Black Duck it does not dive for its food; though it is tolerably expert in diving when wounded. The Sprigtail has a kind of whistling or chattering note, and is very noisy. It is vigilant in giving the alarm on the approach of the gunner, who often curses the watchfulness of this bird.

The *Brant*, or as it is usually written, *Brent*, is a bird well known on both continents; and was celebrated in former times throughout Europe for the singularity of its origin; and the strange transformations it was supposed to undergo previous to its complete organization. Its first appearance was said to be in the form of a *Barnacle shell*, adhering to old water-soaked logs, trees, or other pieces of wood taken from the sea. Of this *Goose-bearing tree*, Gerard, in his *Herbal*, published in 1597, has given a formal account. Ridiculous and chimerical as this notion was, it had many advocates, and was at that time as generally believed, and with about as much reason too, as the present opinion of the annual immersion of *Swallows*, so tenaciously insisted on by *some* of our philosophers, and which, like the former absurdity, will in its turn disappear before the penetrating radiance and calm investigation of truth.

The Brant is expected at Egg-harbour, on the coast of New Jersey, about the first of October, and has been sometimes seen as early as the twentieth of September. In their migrations they uniformly travel over the sea, parallel with the coast; their line of march very much resembles that of the Canada Geese, with this exception, that frequently three or four are crowded together in the front, as if striving for precedency. During their stay on the coast, they feed

on the bars of the sound, or bays, at low water, never in the marshes; their principal food being a remarkably long and broad-leaved marine plant, of a bright green colour, which adheres to stones, and is called by the country people Sea-cabbage; they also eat small shell-fish. During the time of high water they float in the bay, in long lines, particularly in calm weather. Their voice is hoarse and hoaking, and when some hundreds are screaming together, it reminds one of a pack of hounds in full cry. When they change their feeding grounds, or are aroused on wing, they will always endeavour to avoid crossing the land. Hence, according as the wind blows, the gunners conceal themselves on certain points or tongues of land, which project into the bay; and if a gale should impel the birds to leeward, they will earnestly labour to gain the windward point, flying a few feet above the surface of the water; but when they reach the extremity of the land, in endeavouring to double it, they are frequently driven over the spots where the gunners lie on their backs, who instantly spring up with loud shouts: the Brant become alarmed, cluster confusedly together, and, instead of pushing straight forward, turn to avoid the danger; this is the critical moment for the gunners, who pouring into the panic-struck flock their well-directed fire, bring many of them to the ground. About the twentieth of May the Brant pass the coast of New Jersey on their route to the north, but seldom stop, unless driven in by tempestuous weather. Should a south-east gale occur at that time, they soon become fatigued, and fly slowly over the surf of the sea beach, frequently affording the gunners rare sport. At this season they are very fat, and of a fine flavour. In the month of November they are likewise excellent; though after their favourite sea-cabbage becomes scarce their flesh tastes somewhat sedgy. When the winter sets in with severity the Brant principally move off to the south.

Snow Goose. This species, called on the coast the *Red Goose*, and by others the *Pied Goose* and *White Brant*, arrives in the river Delaware from the north early in November, sometimes in considerable flocks, and is extremely noisy, their notes being shriller and more squeaking than those of the Canada or common Wild Goose. On their first arrival they make but a short stay, proceeding, as winter approaches, farther to the south; but from the middle of February until the breaking up of the ice in March, they are frequently numerous along both shores of the Delaware, about and below Reedy Island, particularly near Old Duck Creek, in the state of Delaware. They feed on the roots of the reeds, tearing them up from the marshes like hogs. Their flesh, like that of most others of their tribe that feed on vegetables, is excellent.

Gray Goose. This is said to be the original stock of the common domesticated Goose, and is called by the naturalists of Britain the *Gray-lag Goose*. It is found in various parts of the old and new continents; but seldom appears within the limits of the United States. At Hudson's Bay this species arrives early in May, as soon as the ice disappears; they collect in flocks of twenty or thirty, stay about three weeks, then separate in pairs, and take off to breed. In July they moult, at which time the Indians destroy many of them. About the middle of August they return to the marshes, with their young, and continue there till September.* The Gray Goose was observed by Lewis and Clarke on the waters of the Columbia.

* Pennant, *Arct. Zool.* vol. 2, p. 268.

Canada Goose. This is the common Wild Goose of the United States, universally known over the country; whose regular periodical migrations are the sure signals of returning spring, or approaching winter. The tracts of their vast migratory journeys are not confined to the coast or its vicinity. In their voyages to and from the north, these winged pilgrims pass over the interior on both sides of the mountains. Their first arrival on the coast of New Jersey is early in October, and their first numerous appearance is the sure prognostic of severe weather. Those which continue all winter frequent the shallow bays and marsh islands; their principal food being the sea-cabbage, and the roots of the sedge. Every few days they make an excursion to the inlets on the beach for gravel. They cross, indiscriminately, over land or water, generally taking the nearest course to their object; differing in this respect from the Brant, who will often go a great way round by water rather than cross over the land. Wounded Geese have, in numerous instances, been completely domesticated, and readily pair with the domestic Geese. The offspring are said to be incapable of propagation; they are larger than either of the parents; but the characteristic marks of the Wild Goose still predominate. The Canada Goose is now domesticated in numerous quarters of the country, and is remarked for being extremely watchful, and more sensible of approaching changes in the atmosphere than the common Gray Goose. In England, France and Germany, they have also been long domesticated. Thus has America already added to the stock of domestic fowls three species, the Turkey, the Muscovy Duck, and the Canada Goose, inferior to none in usefulness; for it is acknowledged by an English naturalist of good observation, the ingenious Bewick, that this last species "is as familiar, breeds as freely, and is in every respect as valuable as the common Goose."

The *Wild Swan* breeds in the northern parts of North America, multitudes of them having been seen, with their young, by both Hearne and Mackenzie, in their journeys to the northern ocean. When these birds are moulting or changing their feathers, the Indians, taking advantage of their inability to fly, pursue them and kill numbers; their eggs and young are likewise sought after with avidity. In the Chesapeake bay these noble birds appear every autumn; often associating with the Canada Geese, but generally feeding by themselves in shallow water, where they can reach the bottom with their bills. They are a wary bird, and can seldom be approached within gunshot. Seen at a distance, in strings of one hundred or more, gracefully floating on the smooth expanse, they give great interest to the watery landscape; their snow-white plumage, contrasted with the russet hue of the adjacent shores, producing a fine effect, while they arouse in the mind of the classic voyager some of the most amiable and affecting fables of antiquity. The old Swans, as an article of food, are in no esteem, being tough, insipid, and far inferior to the Geese; but the cygnets or young Swans are considered good eating.

The *Snake-bird* is an inhabitant of the Carolinas, Georgia and the Floridas. It seems to have derived its name from the singular form of its head and neck, which at a distance very much resemble some species of serpents. In those countries where noxious animals abound, we may readily conceive that the appearance of this bird, extending its long neck through the foliage of a tree, would tend to startle the wary traveller, whose imagination had portrayed objects of danger

lurking in every thicket. These birds frequent the ponds, rivers and creeks, during the summer; build in the trees of the swamps, and those of the islands in the ponds; they construct their nests of sticks; the eggs are of a sky blue colour, and from six to eight in number.

ZOOLOGY OF THE UNITED STATES.

CLASS AMPHIBIA.

ORDER REPTILES.

GENUS TESTUDO.

Speckled land Tortoise	<i>Testudo Carolina.</i>
Close shelled T.	<i>T. clausa.</i>
Pennsylvania T.	<i>T. Pennsylvanica.</i>
Mud T.	<i>T. denticulata.</i>
Soft shelled T.	<i>T. cartilaginea.</i>
Great land T.	<i>T. terrestris.</i>
Tarrapin	<i>T. ———</i>

GENUS RAMA.

Horned Toad . . .	<i>Rana cornuta.</i>
Virginia Frog . . .	<i>R. virginica.</i>
Tree F.	<i>R. arborea.</i>
Common Toad . . .	<i>R. bufo.</i>
Pond Frog	<i>R. ocellata.</i>
Bull F.	<i>R. buana.</i>
Clamorous F. . . .	<i>R. pipiens.</i>
Green fountain F.	<i>R. esculenta.</i>
Common F.	<i>R. temporaria.</i>
White-spotted F.	<i>R. leucophylla.</i>

GENUS LACERTA.

Alligator	<i>Lacerta alligator.</i>
Pennsylvania Lizard	<i>L. bimaculata.</i>
Orbicular L. . . .	<i>L. orbicularis.</i>
Chameleon	<i>L. chameleon.</i>
Six-lined Lizard . .	<i>L. sexlineata.</i>
Five-lined L. . . .	<i>L. quinquelineata.</i>
Blue-tailed L. . . .	<i>L. fasciata.</i>
Four-lined L. . . .	<i>L. quadrilineata.</i>
Brown L.	<i>L. punctata.</i>
Lumbriciform L. . .	<i>L. lumbricoides.</i>
Copper-coloured L.	<i>L. dracena?</i>
Blue-bellied L. . .	<i>L. ———</i>
Green Carolina L. .	<i>L. bullaris.</i>

GENUS SIREN.

Carolina Siren . . .	<i>Siren lacertina.</i>
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ORDER SERPENTS.

GENUS CROTALUS.

Ground Rattle Snake	<i>Crotalus miliarius.</i>
Great R. S.	<i>C. horridus.</i>
Yellow R. S. . . .	<i>C. dryinas.</i>

Bastard R. S. . . .	<i>C. durissus.</i>
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GENUS BOA.

Indian Boa	<i>Boa constrictor.</i>
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GENUS COLUBER.

Canada Viper . . .	<i>Coluber leberis.</i>
Spotted Moccasin Snake	<i>C. simus.</i>
Small Brown Adder .	<i>C. striatus.</i>
Mexican Viper . . .	<i>C. Novæ Hispaniæ.</i>
Crowned Viper . . .	<i>C. coronatus.</i>
Water V.*	<i>C. aquaticus.</i>
Wampum Snake . . .	<i>C. fasciatus.</i>
Barred S.	<i>C. dolius.</i>
Truncheon S. . . .	<i>C. tisiophone.</i>
Florida Viper . . .	<i>C. coccineus.</i>
House Snake	<i>C. humanus.</i>
Brown Snake	<i>C. sipedon.</i>
Corn Snake	<i>C. fulvius.</i>
Pearl S.	<i>C. perflatus.</i>
Brown Viper	<i>C. sirtalis.</i>
Dark Blue Snake . .	<i>C. getulus.</i>
Black Snake	<i>C. constrictor.</i>
Dotted S.	<i>C. carinatus.</i>
Virginian V.	<i>C. virginicus.</i>
Bluish-Green V. . .	<i>C. aestivus.</i>
Black V.	<i>C. caceremon.</i>
White Snake	<i>C. atropos.</i>
Green-striped S. . .	<i>C. dipsas.</i>
Green Snake	<i>C. mcyterizans.</i>
Little Brown Bead S.	<i>C. annulatus.</i>
Coach Whip S. . . .	<i>C. flagellum.</i>
Copper-Bellied S. . .	<i>C. erythrogaster.</i>
Ribbon S.	<i>C. saurita.</i>
Small Black and Red S.	<i>C. torquatus.</i>
Garter S.	<i>C. ———</i>
Moccasin S.	<i>C. ———</i>

GENUS ANGUIS.

Glass Snake	<i>Anguis ventralis.</i>
Brownish spotted S.	<i>A. reticulatus.</i>
Yellowish White S.	<i>A. lumbricatus.</i>
Striped S.	<i>A. eryx?</i>
Chicken S.	<i>A. maculatus?</i>

GENUS AMPHISBÆNA.

Ring Snake	<i>Amphisbæna.</i>
Joint or Hoop S. . .	<i>A. fuliginosa?</i>

The Soft-shelled Tortoise is the largest of the Testudo genus found in North America. When full grown it weighs upwards of 40 pounds. Its flesh is very delicate. It is fierce, and when attacked defends itself by biting. They are found in Florida, and are common in many parts of South America. Of the Tortoise, commonly known by the name of *Tarrapins*, there appears to be several species. Those brought from the Susquehanna are the largest, being from a foot to 18 inches in length. The head, claws and sides, are black, with bright yellow lines; shell, gibbous, oval, and of a dusky brown colour. Those which are found near Egg harbour, and on the eastern

* Frequently called the horn snake, from a blunt horny point, half an inch in length, which terminates the tail. This appearance has misled some writers to class it among the *crotali* under the name of the water rattle-snake. It is very venomous.

shore of Maryland, are entirely black. The shell is nearly round and convex. They seldom exceed a foot in length. These animals are brought in great numbers to the Philadelphia market, where they form one of the greatest delicacies of the table.

The *Alligator* is an animal very much resembling the Crocodile of the Nile. Their common length is about 12 feet; but they have been seen as long as 23 feet. They are strong, fierce and formidable. They move through the water with great velocity. They are covered with scales which are impenetrable to the ball of the rifle. They are however, vulnerable about the head and belly, and so many of them have been destroyed by the inhabitants for their skins, that their number has considerably diminished. They inhabit the waters of the Mississippi, the streams of Florida and Mexico, and the Atlantic coasts of Carolina and Georgia. The *Chameleon* is found in Mexico. The *Green Carolina Lizzard* has sometimes been called the Chameleon from the different shades of colour it assumes. The Chameleon is however much larger, and its usual colour is grayish.

The *Rattle-Snake* is the most venomous of serpents. He is, however, never known to attack man unless he has been touched or affrighted. We may pass very near him without disturbing him, or his shewing the least disposition to bite. The rattles make no noise, as commonly supposed, when the snake creeps: but when they are affrighted, they coil upon themselves, remain motionless, and are ready to dart forward. Then only, they move with an inconceivable velocity the rattles which advise us of their vicinity. In time of danger, the young snakes take refuge in the maw of the old one. It is commonly supposed that the number of rattles is proportioned to the age of the animal, and that it acquires one rattle every year: this however is a mistake; they have been found to acquire two or three bells in one year. The venom of the rattle-snake is of a clear transparent yellow colour. It is contained in a bladder beneath each fang, and towards the middle of the lower jaw, communicating with the root of the teeth, which are pierced at their bases, and this opening communicates with the bladder containing the poison. The effects of this venom are very various, not only in different species of animals, but even in different individuals of the same species. It sometimes induces most violent pains, which, if we may judge from the cries of the bitten animal, continue nearly to the close of its life. At other times, it induces death without creating any, or but very little pain. Warm blooded animals sometimes struggle through the danger and recover.* The *crotalus horridus* sometimes grow to the length of eight feet, and weigh between eight and nine pounds. The other species, though smaller, do not appear to be less venomous.

The *Boa* was first ascertained to be a native of the United States by Dr. Mitchell of New York. The individual he saw was on Long Island. It was seven feet four inches in length and thick in proportion. Its back was covered with black or dark brown spots. The Boa has no fangs or biting teeth, and is of course not venomous. It lives upon squirrels, rabbits, small birds, &c. This animal is known in the southern states by the name of the pine or bull snake. In India it grows to the length of forty feet, and not unfrequently attacks tygers, horses, &c.

* Mease's United States, p. 389.

The *Barred Snake* is a very beautiful little animal. Its general colour is milk-white, marked throughout with large, oval, jet-black rings. It inhabits the Carolinas. The *House Snake* is a native of New Spain, where it is said frequently to be domesticated. The *Pearl Snake* is also found in Mexico. Its body is of a beautiful pearl colour; its head and tail are sea-green, the former marked by a red spot. It is about two feet and a half long.

The *Black Snake* is one of the most common snakes of the United States. It is very large, sometimes attaining to the length of six feet. They are entirely of a shining black colour. They feed upon rats, mice, moles, &c. and are very useful in destroying these vermin. They move along the grass, or dry leaves, with great rapidity; are noted for robbing birds nests; and many strange stories are told of their powers of fascination over squirrels, small birds, &c. which it is said they can attract from the tops of the tallest trees. The mode pursued by the *Crotalus Horridus*, and *Black Snake*, in fighting, is curious. Each one entwines his tail round a shrub, and both rising, they dart at each other, endeavouring to throw their heads round the neck of their antagonist; the one that succeeds pulls with great violence, and endeavours to drag the other down to the ground. In this struggle they frequently loose their holds, which they again resume and proceed as before. A person who was an eye-witness to such a combat, saw the Rattle Snake completely conquered and dragged into the water.

The *Black Viper* is one of the most venomous of the *coluber* genus. It is very thick in proportion to its length, which is about eighteen inches. It is slow in its motions, and, when irritated, dilates its naturally large head to a surprising width; threatening at the same time with a horrid hiss, whence it has been peculiarly denominated the *hissing snake*. Its fangs are large, and it is said to be as dangerous as the rattle-snake. The *Green Snake* is common in many parts of North America. It is of a beautiful grass-green colour, with a bright yellow line extending on each side from head to tail. It is generally found on trees, is very active, and feeds on insects.

The *Coach-whip Snake* is very long and slender; its length being from four to seven feet. Its colour is a chocolate-brown, varied with black and white. It is very active in its motions, and perfectly innocent. The Indians believe it can cut a man in two with a jerk of its tail. The *Ribbon Snake* resembles the *Green Snake* in its manners. It is smaller. Its general colour is brown above, with three longitudinal bluish-green stripes. The *Black and Red Snake* is the smallest of the serpent kind. It is not larger than an earth worm. The head and back are of a glossy jet black, with a white collar round the neck. The head is rather large, and covered with scales; belly red, eyes flame coloured. It is a rare species, a native of Pennsylvania, where it inhabits crevices of rocks, old walls, &c. and feeds on insects. The *Moccasin Snake* inhabits the swamps and low grounds of the southern states. It grows to the length of five feet, and is said to be very venomous.

"The *Glass Snake* has a very small head; the upper part of its body is of a colour blended brown and green, most regularly and elegantly spotted with yellow. Its skin is very smooth and shining, with small scales, more closely connected than those of other serpents, and of a different structure. A small blow with a stick will separate the body, not only at the place struck, but at two or three other places,

the muscles being articulated in a singular manner, quite through to the vertebra. They are numerous in the sandy woods of the Carolinas and Georgia.* They are also found in the middle states.

"The *Joint Snake* has a skin as hard as parchment, and as smooth as glass. It is beautifully streaked with black and white. It is so stiff, and has so few joints, and those so unyielding, that it can hardly bend itself into the form of a hoop."†

Thus far we have given as complete a list as could be procured of the animals of the United States according to the Linnean arrangement. A long catalogue might also be given of the fish, and a list of the insects would fill a volume. The latter is of course impossible, and a list of the fish would not be sufficiently interesting to compensate for the room it would occupy. We shall therefore confine ourselves to a few of the most interesting species of these two classes.

Fish. The *Sturgeon* is the largest fresh water fish of the United States. It is found in almost all the considerable rivers of the union. The *Blue-bream* of the southern states is a beautiful and delicious fish. The body is dark blue, powdered with sky-blue, gold and red specks. *Herrings* appear off the coast about the latter end of March, and by the middle of April are caught in immense quantities. *Shad* of a superior quality, pay a regular annual visit to the Atlantic coasts, a short time after the herrings. *Perch*, *Rock*, *Old Wives*, *Catfish*, *Salmon*, *Black-fish*, *Mackarel*, and many others, abound in the rivers. Excellent *Trout* are found in the cold water creeks. The *Lamprey* abounds in the rivers of New-England. *Pike* are found in all the states, and sometimes are caught very large. *Cuttle-fish*, *Sharks*, *Sword-fish*, *Dolphins*, and other sea fish, are found off the coast of the United States. *Cod-fish* abound along the shores of New-England.

Insects. One of the most distinguished of the American insects, from the destruction which it occasionally commits, is the locust, *cicada septendecim*. This insect is found in all the quarters of the world, in almost all the parts of the torrid and temperate zones. The singularity of their periodical visits, and their immense numbers at those seasons, make them too well known to need much description. Their visits to the United States are not regular, varying from eight to fourteen years, nor do they appear in all parts of the country in the same season. The *Hessian Fly* is an insect which annually commits great ravages among the wheat. Common opinion has ascribed its introduction to the troops from Hesse Cassel which served in the British army during the revolution. This opinion has however been questioned by many, and some authors assert that the insect is not known in Germany. Promising harvests of wheat are frequently totally destroyed by this insect. There is also a species of Bug which does considerable mischief to the wheat, maize, and other grain. The maize also suffers in various stages of its growth by the *Bud-worm*. Different grasses, maize, &c. are often destroyed by the *Grass-caterpillar*. There are two species of *Pea-bugs* found in the southern states, which occasionally commit dreadful havoc among the peas. Among the other insects which injure the vegetables and fruit are the *May-bug*, *Rose-bug*, *Cucumber-fly*, *Potatoe-fly*, different species of *weavels*, *moths*, &c.

* Morse. † idem.

The beautiful appearance produced by the *Fire-fly* has excited the admiration of all the travellers in America. On a summer's evening they are seen in myriads among the meadows and woods. The light they produce is very brilliant, varying in magnitude according to the state of the atmosphere. It is produced and vanishes suddenly like the flash of a pistol. *Glow-worms* are also very numerous in the summer and autumn.

One of the most troublesome of the American insects is the *Mosquito*; they are very numerous in swamps, on the low banks of creeks and rivers, and on the sea shore. From these places however they make excursions into all parts of the country, and are frequently very troublesome in the cities. On the Mississippi they are innumerable. Their bite is very irritating, and is followed by inflammation and swelling. Many species of flies, spiders, beetles, grasshoppers, crickets, butterflies, wasps, hornets, bees, ants, &c. abound in the United States.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES....The Falls of Niagara stand first in the list of the natural curiosities of North America. They are on the river Niagara, nearly equidistant from lakes Erie and Ontario. Those who have seen them consider them as one of the most stupendous wonders of the world. Lake Ontario, north of the Falls, is situated on a plain extending nearly east and west, and lying 330 feet below the level of Lake Erie. On the north, this plain is bounded by a high ledge of rocks, which commences in Upper Canada east of Lake Ontario. This ledge follows the direction of the lake, and circling its western end, turns to the east, and intersects the Niagara river at Lewistown; which place appears to have been the original situation of the falls. South of this ledge is a plain, extending in the same direction as the former, twelve or fifteen miles wide, and backed on the south by another ledge of rocks, intersecting the river at Black Rock. Back of this last ledge of rocks lies that elevated, extensive, level plain, extending on the east nearly to Hudson river, on the south to the Allegany mountains in the vicinity of Pittsburg, and on the west and north-west, with little or no interruption, to the sources of the Mississippi. On this plain are situated the lakes Erie, Huron, Michigan and Superiour, whose immense mass of waters enters the Niagara river, whose current at first scarcely move three miles an hour. As you approach the falls, its rapidity increases, till at last, with most astonishing grandeur, the waters rush impetuously down a stupendous perpendicular precipice 150 feet high, into the gulf below, whose depth is unknown. Thence to Lewistown, eight miles, the channel of the river is narrow, the current rapid, and the banks high and precipitous. During this distance the river descends 120 feet, which added to the falls, and the descent above them, estimated at 90 feet, makes a whole descent of about 360 feet. As you approach the Falls from Lake Ontario, they present to your view the concave of an irregular semicircle, whose longest line is on the American side of the grand central stream. Between this stream, which resembles a horse-shoe, and the sheet of water on the American side, is Goat Island, 990 feet broad. The curve of the Horse-shoe is 2100 feet; and the width of the sheet of water, on the American side, in which there is a small island, 1140 feet. According to this estimate, the circumference of the falls is 4230 feet. Their height on the New-York side is 164 feet; on the Canada 150. The water dashing violently against the bottom, occasions the spray to rise to a great

height in thick clouds of vapour, which descending again, in heavy mists, keep the adjacent banks and atmosphere always damp and chilly. The sound produced by these falls has been heard at the distance of forty miles.

The natural curiosities of the separate states will be found in their proper places.

POPULATION....The population of the thirteen colonies amounted in 1753 to 1,046,000. The first census, taken under the federal government in 1790, made a total of 3,929,326. The census of 1800 amounted to 5,303,666, and that of 1810 to 7,239,903. Supposing the increase since 1810 to be in the same ratio as in the ten preceding years, the population of 1815 must exceed 8,100,000. By the census of 1810 there were in the United States,

Free white males,	2,988,141
Free white females,	2,873,952
Free negroes,	186,446
Slaves,	1,191,364
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	7,239,903

The inhabitants of the United States are principally of English descent. The Dutch were the original settlers of New York, and their descendants are numerous. The inhabitants of Louisiana are principally of French origin. The Germans and Irish are very numerous in Pennsylvania. The state of Ohio has been settled from New-England, New-Jersey and Pennsylvania. Kentucky and Tennessee derive their population principally from Virginia and North Carolina, though the emigrants from New-England are numerous.

Slavery is not tolerated in any of the eastern or middle states; but free negroes are very numerous in New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania and Delaware. Their number in these four states is about 80,000.

The aboriginal inhabitants of the United States, east of the Mississippi, are nearly extinct. There are but two Indian settlements in New-England. One on the river Penobscot, in the district of Maine, and one at Charlestown, Rhode Island, consisting each, of about 300 persons. There are six or eight different small settlements in New-York, and the endeavours of the humane to promote their civilization have been here most successful. In Pennsylvania there is but one small settlement. In New-Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky and the Carolinas, the Indians are not possessed of a foot of ground. Previous to the late war the number of Indians in the state of Ohio was near 2000. The part they took in the contest considerably lessened their number. The most powerful, and by far the most intelligent and civilized of the natives of the United States, are the Creeks of Georgia and the Mississippi Territory. Having adopted many of the customs of their white neighbours, in cultivating the soil, owning slaves, grazing cattle, &c. some of them had acquired considerable wealth. But the fineness of their country excited the avarice of the whites; their own imprudence and jealousy afforded excuses for charges of hostility against the government; and in 1813 a war was kindled, which terminated in the destruction of three-fourths of their numbers and the loss of a large part of their country. The Indians of Louisiana may be estimated at about 120,000 souls.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS....To describe the habits, manners, dress and diversions, of the people of the United States, would be to retread the ground we have already passed, and again describe almost all the nations of Europe. The Germans, French and Irish preserve the customs of their European ancestors, with many of their national attachments, antipathies and prejudices. The bulk of the inhabitants, however, being of English descent, the country having been so long under the British government, and the civil laws being only an improvement upon those of England; the grand features in the character of the people of the United States are English also. Theatrical exhibitions, balls, and the other amusements of the cities of Europe, are also common in those of the United States. Horse racing is a common diversion in the middle and southern states, though several of the legislatures have recently forbidden it under severe penalties. In the southern and western states, gambling of all kinds is practised. Different situations and circumstances have produced different habits and customs in the several sections of the union. These will receive more particular attention in the respective states.

CITIES....The seat of government and political capital of the United States is *Washington* in the district of Columbia. This spot was selected on account of its central situation, and the city was planned and public buildings erected by order of the government. It stands on the Maryland side of the Potowmac, on a point of land formed by that river, and a stream called the Eastern Branch. Its latitude is $38^{\circ} 53'$ north, and its longitude $77^{\circ} 45'$ west from London. In point of salubrity, the situation is unexceptionable; the soil is dry, and furnished with numerous streams and springs of excellent water. The plan of the city extends about four miles up each of the rivers. It is divided by streets running north and south, and east and west, into 1150 squares, containing from three to six acres each. These streets are from 90 to 110 feet wide. Besides these there are diagonal avenues, of from 130 to 160 feet in width, connecting the distant and more important parts of the city. The whole number of houses in Washington, does not exceed 1000. These are situated in five different villages, at a considerable distance apart. The capitol, erected for the accommodation of congress and the public officers, is situated on a pleasant eminence, commanding an extensive prospect. The plan embraces a front of 362 feet. The wings only are completed. The president's palace is a beautiful building of free white stone, two stories high, and 170 feet long by 85 deep. There are several large buildings at the navy yard, a jail, four places of worship, barracks, market-houses, &c. The number of inhabitants in 1810 was 8,208. Though so recently built, this city has witnessed the ravages of war. It was entered on the 24th of August, 1814, by a British force of 5000 men under the command of general Ross. They set fire to the navy yard, the capitol, president's house, and all the public offices except the post office, which they took for a private building. The walls of the capitol were left standing and congress have ordered the interior to be repaired.

Philadelphia is the largest and most populous city of the United States, containing with the county 111,210 inhabitants. The trade of *New-York* is however much more considerable. This latter city contains, with the county, 96,373 inhabitants. The other large commercial cities of the United States are Boston, Baltimore, Charleston,

Savannah and New-Orleans. Lancaster, in Pennsylvania, is the largest inland town of the United States. Pittsburg, in the same state, bids fair to become one of the largest cities of the western country, and is already famous for its manufactures.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES. REVENUE.—The commerce of the United States, which before the war with Great Britain, was in proportion to the population, greater than that of any other country, was in consequence of that war almost totally destroyed. This however was only a temporary interruption; and although several of the channels of commerce heretofore open to the United States, will in future remain closed, yet their trade will still be very considerable.

The following table exhibits the amount of the exports, imports and tonnage of the United States at different periods.

Years.	EXPORTS.			IMPORTS.	TONNAGE. Tons.
	Domestic.	Foreign.	Total.		
190	\$14,200,900	1,799,100	16,000,000	17,500,000	486,890
1795	18,064,050	29,791,506	47,855,556	48,000,000	747,964
1800	31,840,903	39,130,877	70,971,78	71,800,000	920,000
1805	42,387,000	35,320,000	77,699,000	80,000,000	1,107,323
1810	42,366,675	24,391,295	66,757,970		1,424,783
1811	45,294,043	16,022,790	61,316,833		
1812	30,032,109	8,495,127	38,527,236	30,000,000	1,232,502

The manufactures of the United States increased, in proportion as commerce diminished. Before the war, the importation of British manufactures was immense, being more than one half the amount of the whole importation. The great scarcity and high price of British goods after the war, compelled the Americans to manufacture many articles for themselves. Although some of these establishments will be able to maintain themselves, the manufacturers as a body must suffer by the return of peace.

The following summary of the manufactures of the United States, in the year 1810, taken from the returns of the marshals and the secretaries of the territories, is given by Mr. Coxe, in his "Statement of the arts and manufactures of the United States."

Goods manufactured by the loom of cotton, wool, flax, hemp and silk, with stockings,	\$39,497,057
Other goods of those five materials, spun,	2,052,120
Instruments and machinery, manufactured—value \$186,650, carding, fulling and floor cloth stamping by machinery—value \$5,957,816,	6,144,466
Hats of wool, fur, &c. and of mixtures of them,	4,323,744
Manufactures of Iron,	14,364,526
Manufactures of gold, silver, set work, mixed metals, &c.	2,483,912
Manufactures of lead,	325,560
Soap, tallow candles, wax and spermaceti, spring oil and whale oil,	1,766,292
Manufactures of hides and skins,	17,935,477
Manufactures from seeds,	858,509
Grain, fruit and case liquors distilled and fermented,	16,528,207

Dry manufactures from grain, exclusive flour, meal, &c.	75,766
Manufactures of wood,	5,554,708
Manufactures of essences and oils, of and from wood,	179,150
Refined or manufactured sugars,	1,415,724
Manufactures of paper, paste boards, cards, &c.	1,939,285
Manufactures of marble, stone and slate,	462,115
Glass manufactures,	1,047,004
Earthen manufactures,	259,720
Manufactures of Tobacco,	1,260,378
Drugs, dye-stuffs, paints, &c. and dying,	500,382
Cables and cordage,	4,243,168
Manufactures of hair,	129,731
Various and miscellaneous manufactures,	4,347,601
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	\$127,694,602

Mr. Coxe gives also the following estimate of the value of the manufactures, digested by states and territories, formed by a consideration of the reported details, and by a valuation of the manufactures entirely omitted, or imperfectly returned.

Maine (district),	\$3,741,116
Massachusetts,	21,895,528
New Hampshire,	5,225,045
Vermont,	5,407,280
Rhode Island,	4,106,074
Connecticut,	7,771,928
New York,	25,370,289
New Jersey,	7,054,594
Pennsylvania,	33,691,111
Delaware,	1,733,744
Maryland,	11,468,794
Virginia,	15,263,473
Ohio,	2,894,290
Kentucky,	6,181,124
North Carolina,	6,653,152
Tennessee,	3,611,029
South Carolina,	3,623,595
Georgia,	3,658,481
Louisiana,	1,222,357
Mississippi Territory,	419,073
Missouri Territory,	200,000
Indiana Territory,	300,000
Illinois Territory,	120,000
Michigan Territory,	50,000
Columbia (district),	1,100,000
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	\$172,761,977

Both these estimates fall very far short of the true amount, even for the year for which they are calculated. Since that period, most of the states have doubled the amount of their cotton and wool manufactures. Some of them now manufacture more than quadruple the amounts reported by the marshals. The most considerable broad

cloth manufactory is near Wilmington, Delaware. Cotton goods are most extensively manufactured in Rhode-Island, and at Ellicott's mills near Baltimore.

Before the war, the revenue of the government was principally derived from duties on imported foreign merchandize and tonnage, and the sale of public lands. The income from the latter was but trifling. The following table shews the amount of receipts and expenditures at different periods; the amount of loans made, and the balance in the treasury at the end of each year.

Years.	Income.	Expenditures.*	Loans.	Balance.
1792	3,661,932	8,962,000	5,102,498	6,997,753
1795	5,954,534	10,151,240	3,396,424	1,603,938
1800	10,777,709	11,952,534	1,565,229	3,366,340
1805	13,560,693	13,727,123		
1810	9,384,214	13,319,984	2,750,000	3,459,029
1811	13,541,446	15,802,657		3,947,818
1812	10,934,946	18,368,325	5,847,212	2,362,652
1813	13,568,042	32,928,855	23,976,912	5,196,482
1814	11,311,353	38,273,619	40,662,666	1,734,042

A large part of the revenue of 1813 and 1814 was derived from taxes. The following estimate of the products of the existing internal duties, for an entire year after they shall be in full operation, is taken from a report of the commissioner of the revenue, to the secretary of the treasury, dated December 16th, 1814.

Stamps,	\$510,000
Carriages,	300,000
Sales at auction,	300,000
Refined sugar,	150,000
Licenses to retailers,	900,000
Licenses for stills with the duty on spirits,	4,000,000
Postage,	250,000
Lotteries,	150,000
Furniture,	1,238,000
Horses for the saddle and carriage,	70,000
Gold watches,	60,000
Silver watches,	170,000
Boots,	75,000
Saddles and bridles,	66,000
Paper,	50,000
Candles,	200,000
Playing cards,	80,000
Tobacco and snuff,	400,000
Hats,	400,000
Iron,	350,000
Nails,	200,000
Beer, ale and porter,	60,000
Leather,	600,000

\$10,379,000

* The expenditures include the amount of debt refunded each year.

ARMY. In a report of the secretary of war to congress, in the beginning of 1814, the following statement of the regular forces is given.

The amount of regular troops in

February, 1813, was	18,945
June,	27,609
December,	34,325
January, 1814,	33,822

The aggregate amount of volunteers employed in the service of the United States in 1813, was 6000, and of militia 30,000. A short time previous to the conclusion of peace with Great Britain, the secretary of war stated the number of troops in the service of the United States, to be 62,448.

The peace establishment before the war was 5000 men. It is now fixed at 10,000.

NAVY On the 4th of March, 1814, the government of the United States had in commission, three frigates of 44 guns; three of 36; one of 32; two corvettes of 24 guns; one ship of 24 guns; three of 20; two brigs of 18 guns; three of 16; two of 14; one of 10, and one of 2 guns; three schooners of 14 guns; one of 8; one of 6; one of 5; one of 4; two of 3; seven of 2, and three of 1 gun; eight sloops of 18; three of 16; one of 12, and three of 8 guns; one hundred and twenty six gun boats, thirty two barges, and twelve other armed vessels.

Of the above number there were employed on the lakes, one ship of 24 guns; three of 20; two brigs of 18 guns; one of 16; one schooner of 14 guns, and all the vessels carrying less than 14 guns.

There were building at the same time, three vessels of 74 guns; and three frigates of 44 guns; besides 60 barges and other small vessels. Two of the 74's and two of the frigates have since been completed. The other frigate was burned by the British at Washington, and the other 74 is still on the stocks at Philadelphia, and will, when finished, be the most powerful vessel in the American navy, carrying about 90 guns.

The recent exploits of this little navy are fresh in the memory of every one.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS....In the year 1778, the American States entered into a mutual compact or agreement, styled "Articles of Confederation and perpetual Union," which was found to be equal to all the purposes of the revolutionary war; but after the restoration of peace, when trade, opened to all nations, required some general laws for its regulation, and the payment of a large national debt began to press on the states, the system was found to be inadequate. In order, therefore, to meet the public exigencies, to "form a more perfect union, establish justice, provide for the common defence, and promote the general welfare," the people of the United States summoned a Convention of Delegates from the several states, who met at Philadelphia, May 25, 1787, and framed the existing Federal Constitution.

By this form of government the *legislative* authority is vested in a Congress, which is composed of two branches, a Senate and House

of Representatives. The senate is appointed by the state legislatures for six years, with a biennial rotation of one third, and the representatives are elected by the people at large, for two years. Each state sends two members to the senate, and representatives, in proportion to its population. From the adoption of the constitution to the year 1810 the apportionment of representatives was one to 33,000. After the census of that year, the ratio was fixed by congress at one to 35,000. Slave holders are entitled to three votes for every five slaves.

The Congress has power to lay and collect taxes, &c. to borrow money; regulate commerce; coin money; establish post offices and post roads; constitute tribunals of justice inferior to the supreme court; declare war; raise and support armies; provide and maintain a navy; and to make all laws which shall be necessary for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, or any other powers vested in the government of the United States.

The members of Congress, as well as those of the state legislatures, are judges of their own elections, and guardians of their own privileges. Their persons are secured from arrest, except for treason, felony, or breach of the peace, during their attendance at a session, as well as in going and returning; and they possess this immunity in a higher degree than even the members of the British parliament, for the latter may be arrested for debt during the sitting of parliament.

The *executive* authority is vested in a president, who is elected for four years, and may be re-elected without any limitation. He is the commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and has a qualified negative on the legislature. He has a power to grant reprieves and pardons in all cases, except in those of impeachment; fill vacancies in office, during the recess of the senate; make treaties with foreign nations; nominate ambassadors, consuls, judges, and other officers: but the confirmation of the senate is necessary to give validity to these acts. He is bound to take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and from time to time communicate to Congress all the information that is necessary, respecting the state of the commonwealth.

The senate consists at present of thirty six, and the house of representatives of one hundred and eighty two members.

Each particular state is debarred from entering into any treaty, or alliance with any foreign nation; coining money, or laying duties on imports or exports, but what may be absolutely necessary, and the nett produce of such duties shall be for the use of the general treasury, and subject to the revision and control of congress. All the judiciary officers of the United States are appointed by the president; they hold their commissions during good behaviour; and their salaries are unalterable while they continue in office.

The judiciary powers extend to all cases in law and equity, arising from the constitution and laws of the United States; to treaties with foreign nations, to their ambassadors and public ministers; to cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to disputes between two or more states; between citizens of different states, or of the same state claiming under different states; and to all cases where the United States are a party. The laws generally correspond with those of

England, and English reports are quoted as good authority in almost all cases. The stated courts consist of a supreme court, which is held twice a year at the seat of government; a district court, held four times a year in each state; and circuit courts, divided into eastern, middle, and southern, where one of the associate judges of the supreme court always presides.

RELIGION....The constitution of the United States is entirely silent on the subject of religion. By the constitution of the separate states all the different sects of the Christian religion are tolerated. Every man is admissible to office, provided he is well qualified in other respects. In some of the states, provision is made by law, for the support of ministers. The Congregationalists and Presbyterians are the most numerous Christian sects.

LITERATURE....The original settlers of the United States, and those who afterwards emigrated thither, were generally people in the lower ranks of life. Poverty and persecution drove many to seek an asylum, where living was cheap and religious opinions unquestioned. Some were sent thither as a punishment for their crimes, others fled thither to escape from justice. Men of science and literature, meeting with encouragement only in populous and wealthy countries, could have no inducement to visit the new world. The life of the early settlers was laborious, and but little attention was paid to the education of their children. Suitable teachers, in fact, were scarcely to be procured.—The commercial advantages enjoyed by these colonies, soon brought money into the country. Money, in giving the power, gave also a relish, for the enjoyment of the more refined pleasures of society. A taste for reading gradually diffused itself. In proportion as the population increased, schools were instituted, and the system of common education, in many places, soon became equal to that of England. The revolution threw open the commerce of the whole world to the enterprising merchants of the United States; the wealth and population of the country increased with amazing rapidity; and a taste for literary pursuits became universal. Literary and philosophical societies were formed in most of their cities; all the works of merit, published in England, were imported, and many of them reprinted; and at this day no country in the world possesses a better informed population than the United States.

The republic has, however, as yet, produced but few literary characters of eminence. The reason of this is sufficiently obvious. In no country is the business of a man of letters sufficient, of itself, to afford him a comfortable subsistence. In Europe, till within the last century, no class of society suffered more by poverty than the literati. Now, almost every government has a philosophical society under its immediate protection. These societies are endowed with extensive privileges. They are in the practice of bestowing large premiums upon works of peculiar merit. The king also, particularly in England, bestows liberal annual pensions upon those who have distinguished themselves in the field of science. In America, the government cannot, from its nature, afford the same encouragement to literature; and however the literary societies may be disposed, their funds will not afford large premiums. It also frequently happens, that men of education, in Europe, are obliged to subsist by their pens, for want of other employment. In the United States, almost any man

of industry and information may procure riches by devoting himself to business.

America has, however, produced men whom other countries have been proud to honour. Rittenhouse, Rush, count Rumford, Franklin, and many others who might be mentioned, are well known to the literati of Europe. Many of the most distinguished writers of this country are now living, and from the increased taste for literary pursuits, and the improved system of education, the rising generation will, no doubt, greatly swell the number.

LANGUAGE....The language of the United States is the English. Emigrants from the different countries in Europe, use among themselves their native tongue, but there are very few that do not understand English. German is very much spoken in Pennsylvania, and Dutch in New-York. Spanish and French are spoken in New-Orleans, and the latter language is used in all the settlements on the western shore of the Mississippi. Generally speaking, the English language is spoken in a much greater degree of purity in the United States than it is in England.

The vernacular tongues of the aborigines, differ considerably in the different tribes, but they all appear to be derived from the same stock. Their great similarity to the languages of Tartary, China and Hindostan, has induced some learned men to suppose, that the language of America and Asia was originally the same.

ANTIQUITIES....These consist of ancient Indian fortifications, and mounds or tumuli erected over the dead. The present race of Indians have no tradition concerning their origin or uses; and, from their appearance, ages must have passed since their erection. The most remarkable of these antiquities will be described in future articles.

HISTORY....Previous to the revolution, the American colonies, forming a part of the British empire, their history is interwoven with that of the mother country, and the most important events of that period have already been related. The history of their settlement more properly belongs to the individual states.

At the time that the stamp act was repealed,* an act was also passed for securing the dependence of the American colonies on Great Britain. But this does not appear then to have given much umbrage, the colonists regarding it as a *brutum fulmen*, or a pope's bull; and the repeal of the stamp-act occasioned great rejoicings both in America and Great Britain. It would have been happy for the mother-country, if no new laws and regulations had afterwards taken place, which were calculated again to embroil Great Britain and the colonies. But some attempts of this kind, which were vehemently opposed by the colonies, at length brought on a civil war of the most ruinous and fatal nature to England.

Besides the act laying a duty on tea, passed in 1767, other laws had also been passed in England, particularly one relative to quartering troops in the colonies, and another for suspending the legislative powers of the assembly of New-York, which gave great umbrage in America. Another scheme, which was also adopted, of appointing the governors and judges in the colonies to be paid by the crown, and not by the provincial assemblies, as heretofore, occasioned like-

* See the History of England, in vol. 1st.

wise much discontent in America, as it was supposed, that this new regulation would render the governor and judges wholly dependent on the crown, and independent of the people.

In order to induce the East India company to become instrumental in enforcing the tea-duty in America, an act was passed, by which they were enabled to export their teas, duty free, to all places whatsoever. Several ships were accordingly freighted with teas for the different colonies by the company, who also appointed agents there for the disposal of that commodity. This was considered by the Americans, as a scheme calculated merely to circumvent them into a compliance with the revenue law, and thereby pave the way to an unlimited taxation. For it was easily comprehended, that if the tea was once landed, and in the custody of the consignees, no associations, nor other measures, would be sufficient to prevent its sale and consumption : and it was not to be supposed, that when taxation was established in one instance, it would restrain itself in others. These ideas being generally prevalent in America, it was resolved by the colonists to prevent the landing of the tea-cargoes amongst them, at whatever hazard. Accordingly, three ships laden with tea having arrived in the port of Boston in December, 1773, a number of armed men under the disguise of Mohawk Indians, boarded these ships, and in a few hours discharged their whole cargoes of tea into the sea, without doing any other damage, or offering any injury to the captains or crews. Some smaller quantities of tea met afterwards with a similar fate at Boston, and a few other places ; but in general, the commissioners for the sale of that commodity were obliged to relinquish their employments, and the masters of the tea-vessels, from an apprehension of danger, returned again to England with their cargoes. At New-York, indeed, the tea was landed under the cannon of a man of war ; but the persons in the service of government there were obliged to consent to its being locked up from use. In South Carolina some was thrown into the river, as at Boston, and the rest put into damp warehouses, where it perished.

These proceedings in America excited so much indignation in the government of England, that, on the 31st of March, 1774, an act was passed for removing the custom-house officers from the town of Boston, and shutting up the port. Another act was soon after passed "for better regulating the government in the province of Massachusetts Bay." The design of this act was to alter the constitution of that province as it stood by the charter of king William ; to take the whole executive power out of the hands of the people, and to vest the nomination of the counsellors, judges, and magistrates of all kinds, including sheriffs, in the crown, and in some cases in the king's governor, and all to be removeable at the pleasure of the crown. Another act was also passed, which was considered as highly injurious, cruel, and unconstitutional, empowering the governor of Massachusetts Bay, to send persons accused of crimes there, to be tried in England for such offences. Some time after, an act was likewise passed "for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec," which excited a great alarm both in England and America. By this act, a legislative council was to be established for all the affairs of the province of Quebec, except taxation ; which council was to be appointed by the crown, the office to be held during pleasure ; and his majesty's Canadian Roman Catholic subjects

were entitled to a place in it. The French laws, and a trial without jury, were also established in civil cases, and the English laws, with a trial by jury, in criminal; and the popish clergy were invested with a legal right to their tithes from all who were of their own religion. No assembly of the people, as in other British colonies, was appointed, it being said in the act, that it was then inexpedient: but the king was to erect such courts of criminal, civil, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction as he should think proper. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were likewise extended, by the act, thousands of miles at the back of the other colonies, whereby, it was said, a government little better than despotic was established throughout an extensive country.

The measures of England respecting America had so universally exasperated the colonists, that provincial or town meetings were held in every part of the continent, in which they avowed their intentions of opposing, in the most vigorous manner, the measures of administration. Agreements were entered into in the different colonies, whereby the subscribers bound themselves, in the most solemn manner, and in the presence of God, to suspend all commercial intercourse with Great Britain from the last day of the month of August, 1774, until the Boston port bill, and the other late obnoxious laws, should be repealed, and the colony of Massachusetts Bay fully restored to its chartered rights. Other transactions succeeded; and the flame continued to increase and extend in America, till at length twelve of the colonies, including the whole extent of country which stretches from Nova Scotia to Georgia, appointed deputies to attend a general congress, which was held at Philadelphia, and opened the 5th of September, 1774. The number of delegates amounted to fifty-one, who represented the several English colonies; of New-Hampshire 2 delegates; Massachusetts Bay 4; Rhode-Island and Providence plantations 2; Connecticut 3; New-York 7; New-Jersey 4; Pennsylvania 7; the lower counties of Delaware 3; Maryland 4; Virginia 7; North-Carolina 3; and South-Carolina 5 delegates. Georgia afterwards acceded to the confederacy, and sent deputies to the congress.

They drew up a petition to the king, in which they enumerated their several grievances, and solicited his majesty to grant them peace, liberty, and safety. They likewise published an address to the people of Great Britain, another to the colonies in general, and another to the inhabitants of the province of Quebec. The congress broke up on the 26th of October, having resolved, that another congress should be held in the same place on the 10th of May following, unless the grievances of which they complained should be redressed before that time; and they recommended to all the colonies to choose deputies as soon as possible, for that purpose.

Shortly after these events, some measures were proposed in the parliament of Great Britain, for putting a stop to the commotions which unhappily subsisted in America. The earl of Chatham, who had been long in an infirm state of health, appeared in the house of lords, and expressed in the strongest terms, his disapprobation of the whole system of American measures. He also made a motion for immediately recalling the troops from Boston; but this motion was rejected by a large majority, as was also a bill which he brought in soon after, for settling the American troubles. The methods proposed in

the house of commons for promoting an accommodation met also with a similar fate. The number of his majesty's troops was ordered to be augmented; and an act was passed for restraining the commerce of the New-England colonies, and to prohibit their fishery on the banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed, afterwards made in the house of commons, by lord North, first lord of the treasury, for suspending the exercise of the right of taxation in America, claimed by the British parliament, in such of the colonies as should, in their general assemblies, raise such contributions as were approved of by the king in parliament. This motion was carried, and afterwards communicated to some provincial assemblies: but it was rejected by them as delusive and unsatisfactory, and only calculated to disunite them. The petition from the congress to the king was ordered by his majesty to be laid before the parliament; whereupon Dr. Franklin, and two other American agents, solicited to be heard at the bar of the house of commons, on behalf of the colonies, in support of that petition: but their application was rejected; it being said, that the American congress was no legal assembly, and that therefore no petition could be received from it by the parliament with propriety.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the first blood was drawn in this memorable war, at Lexington and Concord in New-England. This was occasioned by general Gage sending a body of troops to destroy some military stores that were at Concord. They succeeded in their design, but were extremely harassed, and forced to a quick retreat; 65 of them were killed, 170 wounded, and about 20 made prisoners. The Americans were computed not to have lost more than 60, including killed and wounded. Immediately after, numerous bodies of the American militia invested the town of Boston, in which general Gage and his troops were. In all the colonies they prepared for war with the utmost despatch; and a stop was almost every where put to the exportation of provisions. The continental congress met at Philadelphia on the 10th of May, 1775, as proposed, and soon adopted such measures as confirmed the people in their resolutions to oppose the British government to the utmost. Among their first acts, were resolutions for the raising of an army, and the establishment of a paper currency for its payment. They assumed the appellation of "the United Colonies of America," who were securities for realizing the nominal value of this currency. They also strictly prohibited the supplying of the British fisheries with any kind of provisions; and, to render this order the more effectual, stopped all exportation to those colonies, islands, and places, which still retained their obedience.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to about 240 men, surprised the garrisons of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. These fortresses were taken without the loss of a man on either side: and the provincials found in the forts a considerable number of pieces of cannon, besides mortars, and sundry kinds of military stores. The force of Great Britain in America was now augmented, by the arrival at Boston from England of the generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with considerable reinforcements. But the continental congress were so little intimidated by this, that they voted, a few days after, that the compact between the crown and the people of Massachusetts Bay was dissolved, by the violation of

the charter of William and Mary; and therefore recommended to the people of that province, to proceed to the establishment of a new government, by electing a governor, assistants, and house of assembly, according to the powers contained in their original charter.

Our limits will not permit us to relate all the particulars of this war. We can only mention some of the most important transactions. On the 17th of June, 1775, a bloody action took place at Bunker's Hill, near Boston, in which the king's troops had the advantage, but with the loss of 226 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers. After this action, the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, opposite to it, on their side of Charlestown neck; so that the troops were as closely invested in that peninsula as they had been in Boston. About this time congress appointed George Washington, esq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired considerable experience in the command of different bodies of provincials during the preceding war with France, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces. They also published a declaration, in which they styled themselves "The Representatives of the United Colonies of North America," and assigned their reasons for taking up arms. A second petition to the king was likewise voted by the congress, which petition was presented by Mr. Penn, late governor, and one of the proprietors of Pennsylvania, through the hands of lord Dartmouth, secretary of state for the American department; but Mr. Penn was soon after informed, that no answer would be given to it. An address now also was published, by the congress, to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland.

But as no conciliatory measures were adopted, hostilities still continued; and an expedition was set on foot by the Americans against Canada, to which they were induced by a commission given to general Carleton, the governor of Canada; by which he was empowered to embody and arm the Canadians, to march out of the country for the subjugation of the other colonies, and to proceed even to capital punishments against all those whom he should deem rebels and opposers of the laws. The American expedition against Canada was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, a gentleman of considerable military skill, on whom the congress conferred the rank of brigadier-general. On the 31st of December, Montgomery attempted to gain possession of Quebec by storm, but was killed in the first fire from a battery, as advancing in the front of his men: Arnold was also dangerously wounded; about 60 of their men were killed or wounded, and 300 taken prisoners. The besiegers immediately quitted their camp, and retired about three miles from the city, and the siege was for some months converted into a blockade. On general Carleton's receiving considerable reinforcements and supplies of provisions from England, in May, 1776, Arnold was obliged to make a precipitate retreat: Montreal, Chamblee, and St. John's, were retaken, and all Canada recovered by the king's troops.

During these transactions, the royal army at Boston was reduced to great distress for want of provisions: the town was bombarded by the Americans; and general Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amounted to upwards of seven thousand men, was obliged to quit Boston, and embark for Halifax, leaving a considera-

ble quantity of artillery and some stores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March, 1776, and general Washington immediately took possession of it. On the 4th of July following, the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name and by the authority of the inhabitants of the united colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, "free and independent states; that they were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally dissolved: and also that, as free and independent states, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do." They likewise published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America."

In July, 1776, an attempt was made by commodore sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charleston in South-Carolina. But this place was so ably defended by the Americans under general Lee, that the British commodore and general were obliged to retire, the king's ships having sustained considerable loss; and a twenty-eight gun ship, which ran a-ground, was obliged to be burnt by the officers and seamen. However, a much more important and successful attack against the Americans was soon after made under the command of general Howe, then joined by a large body of Hessians, and a considerable number of Highlanders, so that his whole force was now extremely formidable. The fleet was commanded by his brother, vice-admiral lord Howe; and both the general and the admiral were invested with a power, under the title of "Commissioners for granting peace to the colonies," of granting pardon to those who would lay down their arms. But their offers of this kind were treated by the Americans with contempt. An attack upon the city of New-York seems to have been expected by the provincials, and therefore they had fortified it in the best manner they were able. On Long-Island, near New-York, the Americans had also a large body of troops encamped, and several works thrown up. On the 22d of August fifteen thousand British troops landed on that island. Various actions and skirmishes took place during several successive days, and the Americans suffered exceedingly. Finding themselves overpowered, the American troops withdrew from the island in the night, and retired to New-York, which city they likewise soon after abandoned. The royal army also obtained some other considerable advantages over the Americans, at the White Plains; they took fort Washington, with a garrison of 2500 men, and fort Lee with a great quantity of stores, which losses obliged the American general to retreat through Jersey to the river Delaware, a distance of ninety miles. On the 8th of December, general Clinton and sir Peter Parker obtained possession of Rhode-Island; and the British troops covered Jersey. This was the crisis of American danger. All their forts were taken; the time of service of the greater part of their army had expired, and the few troops that remained with their officers were in a destitute state, and pursued by a well clothed and disciplined army. Had general Howe pushed on at that time to Philadelphia, after Washington, it has been maintained there would

have been an end of the contest; but this delay gave time for numerous volunteer reinforcements to join general Washington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidst snow, storms, and ice, with a small detachment, crossed the Delaware, and surprised a brigade of the Hessian troops at Trenton. He took upwards of 900 of them prisoners, with whom he repassed the river; having also taken three standards, six pieces of brass cannon, and near one thousand stand of arms. Immediately after this, Washington recrossed the river to resume his former post at Trenton. The British troops collected in force to attack him, and only waited for the morning; but the Americans, by a happy stroke of generalship, defeated the plan. Washington, to disguise his retreat in the night, ordered a line of fires in front of his camp. He then moved completely from the ground with his baggage and artillery, and by a circuitous march of eighteen miles, reached Princetown early in the morning, carried the British post at that place, and set off with near 300 prisoners on his return to the Delaware, just as the British troops at Trenton were under arms and proceeding to attack him, supposing him in his former position.

In the month of September, 1777, two actions of some importance took place between the armies of general Howe and general Washington, in both of which the former had the advantage; and soon after, the city of Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for some time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by way of Canada, proved extremely unsuccessful. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne, a very experienced officer. He set out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and an extraordinary fine train of artillery, and was joined by a considerable body of the Indians. For some time he drove the Americans before him, and made himself master of Ticonderoga; but at length he encountered such difficulties, and was so vigorously opposed by the Americans under Gates and Arnold, that after two severe actions, in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne, and his army of 5,600 men were obliged to lay down their arms, October 17, 1777.

About the same time, sir Henry Clinton and general Vaughan made a successful expedition against the Americans up the North River, and made themselves masters of several forts. General Howe soon after returned to England, and the command of the British army in America devolved upon general Clinton. It was now found necessary to evacuate Philadelphia; and accordingly Clinton retreated with the army to New-York, in June, 1778. The British troops were attacked on their march by the Americans, but the retreat was so ably conducted, that their loss did not amount to 300 killed and wounded.

During part of this war between Great Britain and the colonies, the latter received considerable supplies of arms and ammunition from France; and the French court seems to have thought this a favourable opportunity for lessening the power of Great Britain. Some French officers also entered into the American service; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris, between the French king and the Thirteen United Colonies; and in this treaty it was declared, that the essential and direct end of it was "to maintain effectually the liberty, sovereignty, and

independence, absolute and unlimited, of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

The parliament and people of Great Britain now began to be in general alarmed at the fatal tendency of the American war: and in June, 1778, the earl of Carlisle, William Eden, and George Johnstone, esqrs. arrived at Philadelphia, as commissioners from his majesty, to settle the disputes between the mother country and the colonies. They were invested with certain powers for this purpose by act of parliament. But it was now too late: the terms, which, at an earlier period of the contest, would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with disdain. The congress refused to enter into any treaty with the British commissioners, if the Independence of the United States of America was not previously acknowledged, or the British fleets and armies withdrawn from America. Neither of these requisitions being complied with, the war continued to be carried on with mutual animosity.

On the 4th of May, 1780, sir Henry Clinton made himself master of Charleston, South Carolina; and on the 16th of August, earl Cornwallis obtained a very signal victory over general Gates in that province, in which about a thousand American prisoners were taken.

Soon after, major-general Arnold deserted the service of the congress, made his escape to New-York, and was made a brigadier-general in the royal service. Major Andre, adjutant-general of the British army, was employed in a clandestine negociation with him, for betraying the important post of West Point into the hands of the English. Andre was taken by the Americans and executed as a spy.

On the 15th of March, 1781, earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans under general Green at Guildford, in North-Carolina; but it was a hard fought battle, and the loss on both sides considerable. Indeed the victory was productive of all the consequences of a defeat; for three days after, lord Cornwallis was obliged to leave part of his sick and wounded behind him to the care of his enemy, and to make a circuitous retreat of 200 miles to Wilmington before they could find shelter, and so left South Carolina entirely exposed to the American general. The generals Philips and Arnold committed some ravages in Virginia, destroyed much shipping, and about 8000 hogsheads of tobacco; but none of these events at that time promised any speedy termination of the war; they rather contributed to draw the attention of the Americans, and the French at Rhode Island to that quarter, where the next year the decisive blow was struck which firmly established American Independence. Lord Cornwallis's situation at Wilmington was very disagreeable, and his force reduced so low that he could not think of marching to Charleston by land; he turned his thoughts then to a co-operation in Virginia with Philips and Arnold, and began his march, April 25, 1781. In this central province, all the scattered operations of active hostility began at length to converge into a point, and the grand catastrophe of the American war opened to the world. By different reinforcements, lord Cornwallis's force amounted to above 7000 excellent troops; but his situation became at length very critical. Sir Henry Clinton, the commander in chief, was prevented from sending those succours to him which he otherwise would have done, by his fears for New-York, against which he apprehended Washington meditated a formidable attack. The American general played a game

of great address : as many of his despatches had been intercepted, and the letters published with great parade and triumph in the New-York papers, to expose the poverty, weakness, and disunion of the Americans ; Washington wrote letters to the southern officers and others, informing them of his total inability to relieve Virginia, unless by a direct attack with the French troops on New-York. He asserted it was absolutely determined on, and would soon be executed. These letters were intercepted (as it was intended they should be) with others of the like kind from the French officers, and the project was successful. Sir Henry Clinton was thus amused and deceived, and kept from forming any suspicion of the real designs of the enemy.

By a variety of judicious military manœuvres, Washington kept New-York and its dependencies in a continual state of alarm for about six weeks, and then suddenly marched across Jersey and through Pennsylvania to the head of Elk, from whence the light troops were conveyed by shipping down the Chesapeak bay ; and the bulk of the army, after reaching Maryland by forced marches, was also there embarked, and soon joined the other body under the marquis de la Fayette. Sir Henry Clinton receiving information that the count De Grasse was expected every moment in the Chesapeak, with a large French fleet to co-operate with Washington, now seriously attempted to reinforce lord Cornwallis, but without success ; for on the 5th of September, after a partial action of a few hours between the British fleet under admiral Graves, and that of the French under De Grasse, Graves returned to New-York to refit, and left the French masters of the navigation of the Chesapeak. The most effectual measures were immediately adopted by general Washington, for surrounding lord Cornwallis's army, and on the last of September it was closely invested in Yorktown, and at Gloucester on the opposite side of the river, with a considerable body of troops on one side, and a large naval force on the other. The trenches were opened in the night between the 6th and 7th of October, with a large train of artillery. The works which had been raised by the British, sunk under the weight of the batteries ; the troops were much diminished by the sword and sickness, and worn down by constant watching and fatigue ; and all hope of relief failing, on the 19th of October lord Cornwallis surrendered himself and his whole army by capitulation to general Washington, as prisoners of war. Fifteen hundred seamen underwent the fate of the garrison ; but these, with the *Guadaloupe* frigate of 24 guns, and a number of transports, were assigned to M. de Grasse, as a return for the French naval power and assistance.

Such was the issue of the Virginia war. The capture of this army under lord Cornwallis, was too heavy a blow to be soon or easily recovered ; it threw a gloom over the whole British court and cabinet, and put a total period to the hopes of those who had flattered themselves with the subjugation of the colonies by arms. The surrender of this second British army may be considered as the closing scene of the continental war in America ; for the immense expence of carrying it on, so distant from the seat of preparations and power ; the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation ; the plentiful effusion of human blood it had occasioned ; the diminution of trade, and the vast increase of taxes—these were evils of such a magnitude, arising from this contest, as could scarcely be overlooked even by the most insensible and stupid.

The British parliament having petitioned against a further prosecution of the American war, a change of ministry was the consequence.

The first business of the new ministry was the taking measures for effectuating a general peace. Mr. Grenville was invested with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was directed to propose the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces of America in the first instance, instead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America were also directed to acquaint the congress with the pacific views of the British court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independency of the United States.

Peace was concluded at Paris on the 30th of November, 1782, and the present federal constitution of the United States was adopted in convention on the 17th of September, 1787. The officers of the administration were generally chosen from among those who had been most zealous in the cause of independence, and George Washington, the late commander in chief of the American armies, was almost unanimously elected president of the United States. Under his administration the prosperity of the United States was unprecedented in the history of nations. One of his first acts was to endeavour to procure peace with the neighbouring tribes of Indians. After some unsuccessful negotiations a treaty was formed with the Creeks; but the North-Western Indians refused to come to terms. Two armies under generals Harmer and Sinclair were successively defeated by them, but they were finally subdued by general Wayne in 1794.

The navigation of the mouths of the Mississippi had for some time been a subject of dispute between the government of the United States and that of Spain; but in 1795 a treaty was concluded, in which the claims of the United States were fully conceded. The war which about this time was recommenced between England and France, excited great interest among the people of the United States. The president was determined upon a strict neutrality, but a large proportion of the people wished to espouse the cause of France. Several points of dispute with Great Britain remained unsettled, and the opposition party in America found it their interest to keep up the revolutionary animosity against that country. The president, however, despatched Mr. Jay to England, and that gentleman having procured a treaty, returned with it to America. Against this treaty the greatest clamours were excited by the opposition; and after it had been ratified by the president, the resolutions necessary for carrying it into effect, passed the house of representatives by a majority of but three votes.

About this time Mr. Genet, the first minister from the French republic, arrived in the United States. He was received with enthusiasm by the people, who shewed him every where marks of the greatest attention. His conduct, before his arrival at Philadelphia, however, was not such as to insure him the best reception from the president. While at Charleston, where he landed, he encouraged citizens of the United States to fit out privateers, which he commissioned. This produced immediate complaints from the British minister. The president of course disapproved of the conduct of Genet, and that gentleman, encouraged by the American opposition, so far forgot himself, as to offer open insults to the administration. This produced a request from the president to the French government for his recall. This request was complied with, and another minister

appointed. The differences between the two governments, however, grew more serious, and shortly after, when general Pinckney was sent by the president to France as minister plenipotentiary, the directory ordered him to quit the country immediately. In fact their conduct was equal to a declaration of war, as they authorized their vessels of war to capture American merchantmen on the high seas.

In 1797, Washington's second term of service as president expired, and he declined a re-election. Candidates for that high office were immediately put in nomination by the opposite parties. The Hon. John Adams was supported by the federal, and the Hon. Thomas Jefferson by the democratic party. The former received the greatest number of votes and was elected president. Mr. Jefferson was chosen vice-president.

One of the first acts of the new president was to despatch three commissioners to France, to endeavour to procure an amicable settlement of the differences with that country. Under various pretexts the directory refused to accredit these ministers in their official capacity. They, however, gave them to understand through indirect means, that no negotiations could be entered into, until the American government should agree to give to France pecuniary satisfaction for the wrongs pretended to have been inflicted on her. This proposition was rejected with becoming indignation, and after the directory had made use of numerous insulting but unavailing threats, to frighten the commissioners into their terms, they thought fit to order two of them to quit their territories. The third, Mr. Gerry, was permitted to remain, and invited to renew the discussions. This treatment of their ministers excited the warmest resentment in the breasts of the American people. As war appeared now unavoidable, congress made preparations, by authorizing the raising of a body of troops; and general Washington was once more called into public life, to take the command of the army. French vessels of war and privateers from St. Domingo had captured a number of American merchantmen, and reprisals were now authorized by the American government. On the 9th of February, 1799, a very severe action was fought between the American frigate *Constellation*, captain Truxton, of 36 guns, and the French frigate *L'Insurgent*, of 40 guns. After fighting for an hour and a quarter, the French ship struck. Shortly after, captain Truxton had another action with a French ship of 54 guns, which he silenced, and would have captured, but owing to the disabled condition of his own vessel, he was unable to give chase. This determined conduct of the American government produced its effect on that of France. They informed the president that if he would appoint new commissioners, they should be acknowledged and respected. Although the administration had determined that the next propositions for peace should be discussed in the United States, yet the president saw fit to appoint plenipotentiaries to repair to Paris. These ministers signed a treaty of peace on the 3d of September, 1800, and thus terminated the war with France.

During all this time party divisions continued to increase. The veneration of the people for the character of Washington, was too great to be weakened by the open attacks or secret insinuations of his enemies. But his death, which occurred on the 15th of December, 1799, was a great blow to the federal party. The passions of the people, though not to be excited against Washington, were easily inflamed against the members of his administration. The war with

France obliged the government to impose taxes. These were loudly complained of as oppressive, and the tax on whiskey occasioned an open insurrection in the western parts of Pennsylvania. Although this was easily quelled, the spirit of opposition to the government remained. The alien and sedition laws were likewise causes of great complaint. The former prevented foreigners from being naturalized in less than fourteen years. The latter provided for the punishment of libels on the government and its officers. The general carriage of president Adams was haughty and unpopular; and his treatment of general Hamilton, and several others of Washington's most trusty ministers, gave considerable offence to many of the federal party.

On the 4th of March, 1801, president Adams's time expired, and at the new election the Hon. Thomas Jefferson had a majority of eight electoral votes, and was chosen chief magistrate. The Hon. Aaron Burr was elected vice-president.

From the conclusion of the revolutionary war, the commerce of the United States had been harassed by the depredations of the Barbary powers. A number of ships had been captured, and a number of American citizens were detained as prisoners. The treatment these latter experienced was frequently barbarous in the extreme. Several treaties were concluded at different times, in which, after the custom of the European powers, the government engaged to pay them an annual tribute. If this did not arrive regularly, hostilities were recommenced. In 1801, the bashaw of Tripoli demanded an increase of his tribute, which being refused, he issued a declaration of war, and his cruisers commenced their depredations on the American commerce. Upon receipt of this information, the president despatched a small fleet, of three frigates and a sloop of war, under commodore Dale, to the Mediterranean. In August, in that year, a very severe engagement was fought off Malta, between a Tripolitan cruiser of 14 guns, and the United States' schooner Enterprize, captain Sterrett, of 12 guns. After fighting for three hours, the Tripolitan struck. Having completely dismantled her, captain Sterrett ordered her home to Tripoli, where her arrival, in so shattered a condition, excited considerable alarm. The squadron remained in the Mediterranean during the year 1802, but as their orders were merely to act on the defensive, no events of importance occurred. As the depredations of the Tripolitans were, however, still continued, the American government, in 1803, sent out a reinforcement of several vessels, and gave the command of the fleet to commodore Preble, with orders to commence offensive operations. About this time the emperor of Morocco appeared disposed to take part with the bashaw of Tripoli. He actually committed several acts of hostility, and had it not been for the determined conduct of the American commodore, a war would doubtless have taken place. The American commander appeared off the town of Tangier with his whole fleet, and threatened them with a bombardment. This intimidated the emperor, and an amicable adjustment of differences was effected. The fleet now returned to Tripoli, where they sustained a considerable loss in the capture of the Philadelphia frigate of 44 guns. In pursuing a cruiser into the harbour, she ran on a rock, whence they were unable to extricate her. She defended herself for four hours against the Tripolitan gun-boats, but was finally obliged to surrender. The Tripolitans soon got her off, and towed her into the harbour. She did not,

however, remain long in their possession. On the night of the 3d of February, 1804, the ketch *Intrepid*, commanded by lieutenant Decatur, entered the harbour, retook the *Philadelphia*, where she lay under the guns of the battery, set fire to her, and returned without losing a man. The bashaw still manifesting no desire of accommodation, commodore Preble resolved to storm the town. Four different attacks were made on the 3d, 7th, and 23d of August, and 3d of September, in which a number of the Tripolitan vessels were captured and destroyed, and considerable injury done to the fortifications. On the 9th of September, the fleet was joined by commodore Barron with a reinforcement of four frigates. Barron took the command of the whole.

These successive attacks not having had the effect of humbling the Tripolitans, it was necessary to resort to still more efficient measures. The reigning bashaw had an elder brother who had formerly possessed the government. A successful rebellion had driven him from his seat, and he was now an exile at Alexandria. To him the Americans applied. He gladly embraced their offered assistance, and placed all the troops he could muster under the command of the American general Eaton. This army immediately commenced its march towards Tripoli. They arrived before Derne on the 25th of April, 1805, and carried it by storm on the 27th. Here they were obliged to remain some time on account of the superior numbers of the Tripolitan army, which was now in the neighbourhood. On the 18th of June, the bashaw made an attack upon Derne, in which he was repulsed, and his army completely overthrown. The Americans were now in possession of the capital of the largest province of the bashaw's dominions, and Tripoli itself would have been an easy conquest. In this state of affairs a treaty was concluded at Tripoli, by which the United States agreed to abandon the ex-bashaw, to restore the conquered province, and to pay the reigning bashaw the sum of 60,000 dollars. As an equivalent to all these concessions, the American prisoners at Tripoli were to be liberated, an event which must necessarily have taken place upon the capture of that city.

In 1805, Mr. Jefferson was re-elected to the office of president by an increased majority. To this station the ambition of colonel Burr had aspired when the democratic party first came into power. The votes of the electors were equal, but congress decided in favour of Mr. Jefferson, and awarded to colonel Burr the second office in the administration. The hopes of better success at a future election, induced him to smother his disappointment, and he quietly entered into the duties of his station. His chagrin and mortification at the result of the election of 1805 were excessive. His talents were far from despicable, and his ambition was unabated. As power was not to be had under the government of the United States, he resolved to form an empire to himself. His view appears to have been, to have placed himself at the head of a rebellion in the western states, and to have annexed to them by conquest the Spanish province of Mexico. His conduct, however, excited the suspicions of the government. He was apprehended and tried for treason. There was not, however, proof sufficient for his conviction, and the court was obliged to acquit him.

The two great belligerent nations of Europe, France and England, in their protracted and sanguinary warfare, paid but little regard to

the rights of neutrals. The Berlin and Milan decrees of France, and the orders in council of England, subjected the American commerce to many inconveniences. Under those decrees and orders, a number of American ships were captured and condemned. To avoid this, congress, in 1808, laid an embargo, which continued upwards of a year. This was followed by successive acts, prohibiting the importation of British manufactures, and interdicting all commerce with the belligerents. The act of congress, enforcing the latter measure, left it in the power of the president, to renew the intercourse with either nation, as soon as their obnoxious decrees should be removed. Soon after, the French government proclaimed the repeal of the Berlin and Milan decrees, and the trade with that country was resumed.

In 1809, Mr. Jefferson retired from public life, and the Hon. James Madison was elected president in his place. The British government, still refusing to repeal their orders in council, in June, 1812, a war commenced between the United States and Great Britain, in which the valour of the American army and navy was displayed in numerous instances. On the 24th of December 1814, this war was terminated, by a treaty, signed at Ghent, by the commissioners of the respective governments.

NEW-ENGLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	600	} between	{ 41 and 48 north latitude.		72,000
Breadth	200		{ 65 and 74 west longitude.		

BOUNDARIES....Bounded on the north by Lower Canada; on the west by New-York; on the south by the Atlantic Ocean and Long-Island sound; and on the east by New-Brunswick and the Atlantic Ocean. It comprehends the states of Vermont, New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, and Connecticut.

RIVERS....The principal rivers are, the Connecticut, Thames, Merrimac, Piscataqua, Saco, Kennebec, Penobscot, Schodic, Amariscoggin, Parker's, Charles, Taunton, Providence, Stratford, Onion, La Moille, and Missisconi.

BAYS AND CAPES....The most remarkable bays and harbours are those formed by Plymouth, Rhode-Island, and Providence plantations; Monument-Bay, West-Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape-Cod; Marble-Harbour, Piscataqua, Machias, Wiscasset, Portland, Newburyport, Boston, New-Bedford, Newport, New-London, and New-Haven harbours.

The chief capes are, Cape Cod, Marblehead, Cape Anne, Cape Netic, Cape Porpoise, Cape Elizabeth, and Cape Small-Point.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, &c....New-England is a high, hilly, and, in some parts, a mountainous country. The mountains are comparatively small, running nearly north and south in ridges nearly parallel to each other. Between these ridges flow the great rivers in majestic meanders, receiving the innumerable rivulets and larger streams which proceed from the mountains on each side. To a spectator on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in a state of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance. They seem an ocean of woods, swelled and depressed in its surface, like that of the great ocean itself.

There are four principal ranges of mountains, passing nearly from north-east to south-west, through New-England. They consist of a multitude of parallel ridges, each having many spurs, deviating from the course of the general range: which spurs are again broken into irregular hilly land. The main ridges terminate, sometimes in high bluff heads, near the sea-coast; and sometimes by a gradual descent in the interior parts of the country. These ranges of mountains are full of lakes, ponds, and springs of water, that give rise to numberless streams of various sizes. No country on the globe is better watered than New-England.*

METALS....Rich mines of iron, of a most excellent kind and temper, have been discovered in New-England, which, if improved, may become very beneficial to the inhabitants.

CLIMATE....New-England, though situate almost ten degrees more to the south than the mother country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more severe. The summer is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe in the same latitude. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country so healthy, that it is said to agree better with British constitutions than any other of the American states. The winds are very boisterous in the winter season, and naturalists ascribe the early approach, and the length and severity of the winter, to the large fresh-water lakes lying to the north-west of New-England, which, being frozen over several months, occasion those piercing winds which prove so fatal to mariners on this coast.

SOIL AND PRODUCE....It has been already observed, that the lands lying on the eastern shore of America are low, and in some parts swampy, but farther back they rise into hills. In New-England, towards the north-east, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The soil here is various, but best as you approach the southward. Round Massachusetts Bay the soil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the first planters found the grass above a yard high. The uplands are less fruitful, being for the most part a mixture of sand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low-grounds abound in meadow and pasture-land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much success; the wheat is subject to be blasted; the barley is a hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flourishes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower sort of people. They have likewise malt, and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cider and spruce beer: the latter is made of the tops of the spruce fir, with the addition of a small quantity of molasses. They likewise raise in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a single apple-tree has produced seven barrels of cyder in one season.

But New-England is chiefly distinguished for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, ash, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypress, beech, walnut, chesnut, hazel, sassafras, sumach, and other woods used in dyeing, or tanning leather, carpenter's work, and ship-building. The oaks here are said to be inferior to those of England: but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and formerly furnished the royal navy of England with masts and yards. They draw from their trees considerable quantities of pitch, tar, resin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the soil produces hemp and flax. A ship may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their forests, and indeed ship-building forms a considerable branch of their trade.

ANIMALS....The animals of this country furnish many articles of New-England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horses of New-England are hardy, mettlesome, and serviceable. Here are also elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, minxes, martens, racoons, sables, bears, wolves, foxes, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds.

The seas round New-England, as well as its rivers, abound with fish and whales of different kinds. At the mouth of the river Penobscot, there is a mackarel fishery; they likewise fish for cod in the winter, which they dry in the frost.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS....New England contained, according to the census of 1790, 1,009,522 souls; according to that of 1800, 1,233,011; and according to that of 1810, 1,471,973.

The New-Englanders are generally tall, stout, and well built. They glory in possessing that spirit of freedom, which induced their ancestors to leave their native country, and to brave the dangers of the ocean, and the hardships of settling in a wilderness. Their education, laws, and situation, serve to inspire them with high notions of liberty. In New-England, learning is very generally diffused among all ranks of people, from the excellent establishment of schools in every township. A person of mature age, who cannot both read and write, is rarely to be found.

The inhabitants of New-England are almost universally of English descent: and it is owing to this circumstance, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the English language has been preserved among them so free of corruption. It is true, that from laziness, inattention, and want of acquaintance with mankind, many of the people in the country have accustomed themselves to use some peculiar phrases, and to pronounce certain words in a flat, drawling manner. Hence foreigners pretend they know a New-England man from his manner of speaking; but the same may be said with regard to a Pennsylvanian, a Virginian, or a Carolinian; for all have some phrases and modes of pronunciation peculiar to themselves, which distinguish them from their neighbours.

RELIGION....Calvinism, from the principles of the first settlers, has been very prevalent in New-England: many of the inhabitants also formerly observed the sabbath with a kind of Jewish rigour; but this has of late been much diminished. There is at present no established religion in New-England; but every Christian is allowed the free exercise of his religion, and is equally under the protection of the laws. They annually celebrate fasts and thanksgivings. In the spring, the several governors issue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiously observed in fasting, humiliation, and prayer, throughout their respective states, in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harvest, that gladsome æra of the husbandman's life, a day of public thanksgiving is appointed, enumerating the public blessings received in the course of the year. This pious custom originated with their venerable ancestors, the first settlers. The custom, so rational, and so well calculated to cherish in the minds of the people a sense of their dependence on the Great Benefactor of the world for all their blessings, it is hoped, will ever be sacredly preserved.* Connecticut has provided a bishop for the episcopalians among them, by sending one of their number to Scotland to be ordained by the nonjuring bishops of the episcopal church in that kingdom.

HISTORY....As early as 1606, king James I, had, by letters patent, erected two companies, with a power to send colonies into those parts, then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north-east coast of America was sometimes called. No settle-

* Morse's American Geography.

ments, however, were made in New-England by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themselves with sending out a ship or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fish upon their coasts. This continued to be the only sort of correspondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1620, when the religious dissensions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Archbishop Laud persecuted all sorts of non-conformists with an unrelenting severity. Those men, on the other hand, were ready to submit to all the rigour of persecution rather than give up their religious opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they considered as abuses of the most dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly in order to obtain liberty of conscience. America opened an extensive field. Thither they might transport themselves, and establish whatever sort of religious polity they were inclined to. With this view, having purchased the territory which was within the jurisdiction of the Plymouth company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of settling it whatever way they chose, one hundred and fifty persons embarked for New-England, and built a city, which, because they had sailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithstanding the severity of the climate, the unwholesomeness of the air, and the diseases to which, after a long sea voyage, and in a country which was new to them, they were exposed; notwithstanding the want of all sorts of conveniences, and even of many of the necessaries of life, those who had constitutions fit to endure such hardships, not dispirited or broken by the death of their companions, and supported by the vigour then peculiar to Englishmen, and the satisfaction of finding themselves beyond the reach of the spiritual arm, set themselves to cultivate this country, and to take the best steps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themselves, for the same reasons, uneasy at home, passed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the close of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorchester, Charlestown, and Boston; which last became the capital of New-England. But as necessity is the natural source of that active and frugal industry which produces every thing great among mankind, so an uninterrupted flow of prosperity and success occasions those dissensions which are the bane of human affairs, and often subvert the best founded establishments.

The inhabitants of New-England, who had fled from persecution, became in a short time strongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in that age superior to many prejudices; they had not that open and generous way of thinking which at present distinguishes civilized nations; and the doctrine of universal toleration, which, to the honour of the first settlers in America, began to appear among them, had few abettors, and many opponents. Many of them were bigoted Calvinists; and though they had felt the weight of persecution themselves, they had no charity for those who professed sentiments different from their own. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the same society, without maintaining the same religious opinions; and wherever these were at variance, the members of different sects kept at a distance from each other, and

established separate governments. Hence several slips, torn from the original government of New-England by religious violence, planted themselves in a new soil, and spread over the country. Such was that of New-Hampshire, which continues to this day a separate jurisdiction; such was that of Rhode-Island, whose inhabitants were driven out from the Massachusetts colony (for that is the name by which the government first erected in New-England was distinguished) for supporting the freedom of religious sentiments, and maintaining that the civil magistrate had no right over the speculative opinions of mankind. These liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and, such is the connection between justness of sentiment and external prosperity, that the government of Rhode-Island, though small, became extremely populous and flourishing. Another colony, driven out by the same persecuting spirit, settled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of such as were dissatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America, indeed, was now become the main resource of all discontented and enterprising spirits; and such were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that, in 1637, a proclamation was published, prohibiting any persons from sailing thither, without an express licence from the government. For want of this licence, it is said that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of their party, were detained from going to New-England, after being on ship board for that purpose.

New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode-Island, and Connecticut, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at first, and still continue, under separate jurisdictions. They were all of them, by their charters, originally free, and in a great measure independent of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magistrates, the governor, the council, the assembly, and the power of making such laws as they thought proper, without sending them to Great Britain for the approbation of the crown. Their laws, however, were not to be at variance with those of Great Britain. Towards the latter end of the reign of Charles II, when he and his ministers wanted to destroy all charters and liberties, the Massachusetts colony was accused of violating their charter, in like manner as the city of London, and, by a judgment in the King's Bench of England, was deprived of it. From that time to the revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extensive privileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was vested in the crown; the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, justices, and sheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entrusted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the governor had a negative on the choice of counsellors, peremptory and unlimited; and he was not obliged to give a reason for what he did in this particular, or restrained to any number; authentic copies of the several acts passed by this colony, as well as others, were to be transmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were presented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, election of magistrates, or acts of government whatsoever, were valid

without the governor's consent in writing: and appeals for sums above 300*l.* were admitted to the king and council. Notwithstanding these restraints, the people had still a great share of power in this colony; for they not only chose the assembly, but this assembly, with the governor's concurrence, chose the council, and the governor depended upon the assembly for his annual support.

Indian incursions were very destructive to New-England, from the first settlement till 1725, when a peace was re-established with the natives, and a more just and temperate course being adopted, the tranquillity of the provinces was seldom interrupted; except when the savages were excited to commit hostilities by the French governors of Canada.

In 1745 the New-England provinces planned, and, with the assistance of a small English fleet, executed an expedition against Louisbourg, the capital of the French island of Cape Breton. This place was of the first importance to the French colonies in North America, and had long swarmed with privateers which infested the coast of New-England.

We shall now proceed to give an account of each state separately.

VERMONT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	157	} between	{ 42 and 45 north latitude.		} 10,237.
Breadth	65		{ 72 and 73 30' west longitude.		

BOUNDARIES....Bounded on the north by Lower Canada; on the east by Connecticut river, which divides it from New-Hampshire; on the south by Massachusetts; and on the west by New-York, the deepest channel of Poultney river, East-Bay, and Lake Champlain. It is naturally divided by the Green Mountain, which runs from south to north, and divides the state nearly in the middle.

DIVISIONS AND POPULATION....Vermont is divided into 13 counties, which are subdivided into 246 townships.

	Counties.	Pop. 1800.	Pop. 1810.	Chief Towns.
West of the Green Mountains.	Bennington,	14,607	15,893	{ Bennington.
	Rutland,	23,834	29,486	{ Manchester.
	Addison,	13,417	19,993	{ Rutland.
	Chittenden,	11,490	18,120	{ Middlebury.
	Franklin,	7,573	16,427	{ Vergennes.
	Grand Isle,	2,489	3,445	{ Burlington.
East of the Green Mountains.	Orleans,	1,439	5,838	{ St. Albans.
	Essex,	1,479	3,087	{ North Hero.
	Caledonia,	9,332	18,740	{ Craftsbury.
	Jefferson,*			{ Brownington.
	Orange,	18,239	25,247	{ Guildhall.
	Windsor,	26,969	34,877	{ Danville,
	Windham,	23,581	26,760	{ Peacham,
				{ Montpelier.
				{ Chelsea.
				{ Windsor.
				{ Woodstock.
				{ Westminster.
				{ Brattleborough.
		154,449	217,913	

Seven hundred and fifty people of colour are included in the population of this state according to the census of 1810. The increase of population from 1800 to 1810 is 63,446.

RIVERS AND LAKES....The principal rivers in this state are Michisqui, Lamoille, Onion, and Otter-creek rivers, which run from east

* The population of Jefferson county is included in the counties of Chittenden, Caledonia, and Orange, from which it was taken subsequent to the census of 1810.

to west into Lake Champlain; West, White, Poosoomsuc, Deerfield, and several smaller rivers, which run from west to east, into Connecticut river. Otter Creek rises in Peru, runs west of north 90 miles, and after receiving fifteen smaller streams, falls into Lake Champlain at Ferrisburg. Onion river rises in Cabot, runs south-west 20 miles, then bending its course north of west, 60 miles, falls into Lake Champlain between Burlington and Colchester. It receives 14 tributary streams. Its navigation is interrupted by several falls. At one of these in Waterbury its channel becomes very narrow, and passes between two high ledges of rocks. A huge mis-shapen rock has fallen from one of these ledges, and lies in such a manner as to form a natural bridge, under which the whole stream runs; but it can never be of any use, as neither the shape of the rock, nor the situation of the adjacent banks, will admit of a road either to or across it. The Lamoille issues from a pond in Glover. Its general bearing is south of west. After running 75 miles through a rich, level, and fertile country, having received in its course 14 tributary streams, it falls into Lake Champlain at Colchester. Michiscoui is the Indian name of the most northerly river in Vermont. It rises in Belvidere, runs north-east, crossing into Canada; then after running west some distance it bends towards the south, re-enters Vermont in Richford, and falls into Lake Champlain.

The rivers on the east side of the Green mountains are not so large as those on the west. West river has its principal source in Peru. It runs south-east 37 miles, and falls into Connecticut river at Brattleborough. White river rises in Kingston, runs south-east 50 miles, and falls into the Connecticut at Hartford. Poosoomsuc river is made up of ten lesser streams; it runs south 45 miles, and unites with the Connecticut in Barnet. All these rivers have their sources among the Green mountains, and abound in various kinds of fish.

Lake Champlain, which was first discovered in 1608, by Samuel Champlain, from whom it takes its name, is the largest collection of waters in this part of the United States. It lies between the states of Vermont and New-York, part of whose boundaries it forms, and extends upwards of 100 miles in length, nearly north and south. It is from one to 18 miles wide, and includes several islands, the principal of which are the north and south Hero, which, with the town of Alburg, constitute Grand Isle county. It is of sufficient depth for the largest vessels. Round the shores it begins early to be frozen, but it is not completely covered with ice till the middle of January, and continues so till the middle of April. Its waters pass through the river Sorelle into the St. Lawrence, between Montreal and Quebec. Lake Memphremagog is about forty miles long, and between two and three wide. It lies chiefly in Lower Canada. The river St. Francis forms a communication between it and the river St. Lawrence. Round the shores of this lake the soil is rich, and the country level and pleasant. This lake receives from Vermont three considerable streams, Clyde, Black, and Barton rivers.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS....The soil of this state, deep and of a dark colour, is rich, moist, warm and loamy; adapted to most of the purposes and productions of agriculture. It is, however, better calculated for grazing than tillage, especially upon the higher lands. On the west side of the Green mountains, and in many places along Connecticut river, the soil produces wheat in abundance, and of an excellent quality; but on the mountainous parts towards

the east, winter wheat does not succeed so well. Barley, oats, peas, flax, and all kinds of edible roots, may be cultivated to advantage. The warmer soils along the rivers produce good Indian corn. Agriculture being the first and principal object of attention with new settlers, is, in Vermont, as well as in various other parts of the United States, in a state of progressive improvement. It forms the basis of their wealth, independence, and happiness.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS... The seasons in Vermont are much more regular than in the middle and southern states. During the winter the weather is intensely cold and piercing, the atmosphere hazy, and the sky usually serene and cloudless. The ground is covered from December to March with snow from two to four feet deep. Snow falls frequently, but in small quantities at a time, and is soon over. The severity of winter lasts between three and four months. Spring commences about the middle of March, and, after two or three weeks of boisterous and variable weather, the air becomes mild, warm and pleasant, attended with frequent showers. Vegetation is rapid. In summer the weather is generally fair, clear and settled, with winds mostly from the south and south-east. The most agreeable season is September and part of October, during which time the sky is clear, and the winds from the west. Cold, wet, uncomfortable weather, begins in October, and continues through November, attended frequently with squalls of snow and high winds. The climate, generally speaking, is one calculated to inspire health, vigour, and animation of spirits.

MOUNTAINS AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY... Vermont is divided, through its whole length, by a high range of mountains, called the Green Mountains, from which it derives its name. They rise in Lower Canada, and, converging, take their direction thence southward through the states of Vermont, Massachusetts and Connecticut, ranging nearly parallel with Connecticut river on the east side, and on the west with Lake Champlain and Hudson river, terminating within a few miles of the sea coast near New-Haven. Their general bearing is from north north-east to south south-west, and their length about 400 miles. In the south of the state, their western verge is from 20 to 30 miles on a direct line from Connecticut river: northward between Onion and White rivers, there passes off, to the north-east, a range of high lands, frequently rising into very elevated mountains, varying from the distance of 10 to 15 miles from Connecticut river. The western range continues northward. Between these two ranges, extending from 20 to 30 miles in breadth, lies a beautiful champaign country, equal in fertility to any in the state. The lateral ridges, seen at a distance, appear, in many places, like a collection of mountains piled upon one another, and exhibit some of the grandest, and most majestic features of nature. They are from 10 to 15 miles wide, abounding in springs and streams of water, and mostly covered with forests perpetually verdant. Pine, spruce, hemlock and fir, interwoven with shrubbery, render their summits, which are rocky, and covered with moss almost inaccessible. Their greatest height has been estimated at 3454 feet above the level of the Atlantic.

Vermont is hilly but not rocky, and exhibits very different aspects. Along the margin of the rivers lie extensive plains of fine level land. At a small distance from these the elevations commence, and continue ascending until they form those lofty ranges of mountains already described. These are intersected by numerous deep and long vallies.

From Rutland county, on the western side of the mountains, northward to the Canada line, the country is flat and well adapted to tillage. Large tracts of land in Vermont are still in the wild state of nature. Unouched by the hand of cultivation, these present to the view, forests, abounding with trees, plants and flowers, almost infinite in number, and of the most various species.

CHIEF TOWNS....There are no large towns in Vermont. Montpelier, which is near the centre of the state, is the seat of government. It is a flourishing village, has two paper-mills, and two printing-offices, each of which publishes a weekly newspaper. It is situated 132 miles on a direct line north-west from Boston. Windsor is the most populous town in the state, containing 2,750 inhabitants. It is situated about 45 miles from the Massachusetts line, on the Connecticut river. Bennington is one of the oldest towns in the state. It was built in 1764. It contains about 2500 inhabitants, a number of handsome houses, a congregational church, a court-house, and jail. The other towns are Woodstock and Brattleborough, on the east side of the Green Mountains, and on the west Rutland, Middlebury, Vergennes, and Burlington, the last of which is the only port of entry in the state.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES....The inhabitants of this state trade principally with Boston, New-York, and Hartford. The articles of export are pot and pearl ashes; beef, which is the principal article; horses, grain, some butter and cheese, lumber, &c. Vast quantities of pot and pearl ashes are made in every part of this state: but one of its most important manufactures is that of maple-sugar. It has been estimated by a competent judge, that the average quantity made for every family back of Connecticut river, is 200*lb.* a year. One man, with but ordinary advantages, in one month, made 550*lb.* of a quality equal to imported brown sugar. In two towns in Orange county containing no more than forty families, 13,000*lb.* of sugar were made in the year 1791.

The manufacture of cloth, particularly woollen, has lately, in this state, become an object of attention. Carding machines, important in the fabrication of this article, are set in motion by water, in almost every township in the state, by which female labour is very much abridged. From flax and wool raised on their own farms, most families manufacture all their own cloathing among themselves.

A state bank consisting of four branches, one at Burlington, one at Middlebury, one at Woodstock, and one at Westminster, was established in 1806. It is under the management of thirteen directors, appointed annually by the legislature.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES....These are principally subterraneous excavations, in the sides of the mountains, and alterations in the direction and depth of some of the rivers. Among the caverns there is one on the south-east side of a mountain, in the town of Clarendon, whose entrance is two and a half feet in diameter. The passage, descending, makes an angle with the horizon of 35° or 40°, and continues of nearly the same capacity for 3½ feet. Here it opens into a spacious room, 20 feet long, 12½ wide, and 18 or 20 high. The floor, sides, and roof of the room, appear to be solid rock, very rough, and uneven. The water percolates continually through the top, and has formed stalactites of various forms. At the north part of the room, there opens another aperture of about 40 inches diameter, leading down into another spacious room, 80 feet in length, 20 in width,

and 20 in height. In the spring of the year this room is full of water.

At Dorset there is an excavation into a solid marble rock. The entrance, through a perpendicular ledge twenty feet in height, is twelve feet broad and as many high. The descent makes an angle of 25° with the horizon, and, after a short passage, opens into a room 25 feet wide, 20 high, and 150 long, continuing the same declination. At the further extremity, two narrow passages run off to an unknown distance in the mountain. At the town of Danby, there is another cave equally interesting, but it has not been completely explored.

In 1783, part of Poultney river changed its bed. This river empties into East bay. A little above its junction with East bay, a ridge of land crosses in a northerly direction. The river running a north-westerly course, on meeting the ridge, turned suddenly to the north-east, and keeping that course about half a mile, turned westerly, passing the ridge over a high ledge of rocks. For several years the river had gradually worn away the bank on the side of the ridge, just in the bend where the river turned to the north-east. In May, 1783, during a remarkable freshet, the river, at this place, broke the ridge, and, meeting no rock, it wore a channel 60 feet deep, nearly to a level with the stream below; leaving its former channel and falls dry. The channel of the river above was lowered to a great depth, so that the low meadow lands along the river, which were before overflowed with every freshet, have now become a dry plain. The earth thrown out of this prodigious chasm, filled East bay for several miles; but the force of the current has since removed it, so as to render the bay again navigable.

Similar changes appear to have taken place in other rivers. Through the whole length of Vermont, Connecticut river has lowered its channel from 80 to 100 feet. On the plain where Dartmouth College stands, which is nearly 100 feet above the present bed of the river, logs of timber have been dug up at the depth of 25 and 30 feet below the surface. A singular discovery was made in digging a well, in Burlington, on the Onion river, in the summer of 1786. The earth, to the depth of fifty feet, was composed of a fine river sand. Twenty-five feet below the surface, a large number of frogs were found in a torpid state. After being exposed for a short time to the air, they shewed signs of life, and began to leap about, but soon grew languid and died.

About 4 years ago, some of the inhabitants of Glover and the adjacent towns, attempted to cut a channel from a large pond, whence the Lamoille issues, running south into Lake Champlain, for the purpose of increasing a mill-stream which issues from the same pond, and also with a view of connecting it with a lesser pond, whence Barton river issues, which runs north into Lake Memphremagog. After digging, a few feet from the margin of the pond, through a bed of gravel and earth extremely hard, they came to a bed of quicksand, into which the water entered, through the new channel, and in a few minutes formed a capacious gully or hole about 60 feet deep. The waters of the pond rushed instantaneously towards the increasing gulf with such impetuous force, that they loosened half an acre of the opposing bank, covered with standing trees, and then with one tremendous crash, dashed it over a precipice towards the north. A channel from ten to fifteen rods wide, and 150 feet deep, was washed in a few minutes, by the rushing torrent, and the whole

mass of water in the pond precipitated at once down the declivity towards Barton river. The small pond was ingulphed and borne off with all the mills and bridges along Barton river, and large tracts of excellent soil covered several feet deep with sand, wood, &c.

BOTANY....Mr. Williams, the historian, of Vermont, has given an enumeration of the most common and useful Botanical productions of the state. His enumeration contains 40 species of forest trees, 30 of small trees, shrubs and vines, esculent, and valuable on account of their salubrious and pleasant fruit; 10 of vegetables, which are also esculent and valuable on account of their roots and seeds; 29 of indigenous vegetables, which are applied to medicinal purposes; and 8, which in a state of nature operate as poisons, but which, by chemical preparations, become valuable medicines. Ginseng grows in great plenty and perfection in this state. The Bayberry deserves to be noticed for its fine perfume and delicate green wax. The prickly ash is valuable for its uncommon aromatic properties. The Witch-hazel blossoms, after the frost has destroyed its leaves. The Indian Hemp may be wrought into a fine and strong thread. The Silk Grass contains a fine soft down, which may be carded and spun into an excellent wick yarn. The berries of the common Sumach are used to great advantage in medicinal applications, and in several kinds of dyes.

MINERALOGY....A valuable copperas mine, in Strafford, Orange county, has, since the year 1809, yielded a sufficient quantity of that mineral, to supply this, and the adjacent parts of the surrounding states. Iron mines abound on the west side of the mountains; the first opened in this state, was in Tinmouth in 1785, since which, others have been discovered and worked in Shaftesbury, Rutland, Shoreham, Monkton, Milton, and several other places. There is a lead mine in Sunderland. The vein of ore, which is very rich, is in a rock of white flint. Rich pyrites is found in Shrewsbury. It is so saturated with sulphur, that, thrown into the fire, it blazes like a brimstone match. In the town of Rutland there is a vein of fine pipe clay, which might furnish materials for the manufacture of white earthen ware. Another species of clay, resembling in quality that of which porcelain ware is made, has recently been discovered in Monkton. White, gray, and variegated marble abounds throughout the state; but that which claims pre-eminence on account of its superior fineness, and the beauty and variety of its clouds, is obtained from a quarry in Bennington. Specimens of gold and silver have been found in this state, but no mines.

CHARACTER, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS..This state was settled principally by emigrants from the other New-England states, whose manners and customs they, in a great measure, retain. Like most other new settlers, they are active, hardy and industrious; temperate, and economical in their living; hospitable to strangers; brave, independent, and enterprising; tenacious of their liberties, and jealous of their rulers.

EDUCATION....Although Vermont has made ample provision for the future education of her youth, they do not at present possess the advantages and facilities enjoyed in the neighbouring states. Few, as yet, have either leisure or means to attend to the higher branches of learning. In 1791, the legislature passed an act establishing a University at Burlington. Its funds consist in donations to the amount of 20,000 dollars, and 33,000 acres of land, reserved in the grants made

by the state. In 1800, a college was founded at Middlebury, which is chiefly supported by private donations. Academies and grammar schools are established in the different counties, and most of them are amply endowed with lands. A right of land in each town, amounting in the whole to upwards of 80,000 acres, has been reserved for the support of common schools. In no country does common education receive more assiduous attention.

RELIGION....The great body of the people of Vermont are Congregationalists and Baptists. The other denominations are Presbyterians, Methodists, Episcopalians, Universalists, and Friends. In each township, among the grants made by New-Hampshire, there are three rights reserved for religious purposes: one to the society for propagating the gospel; one for the episcopal clergy; and one for the first settled minister, of any denomination.

MILITARY STRENGTH...This is composed of all the able bodied males, from 18 to 45 years of age, which amounted in 1792 to 18,500. According to the returns of the adjutant-general, in October, 1803, the militia amounted only to 17,574. In 1809, the military strength was as follows.

Infantry,	15,543
Artillery,	303
Cavalry,	1,035
Riflemen, &c.	3,392
	<hr/>
	20,273

The state was at the same time in the possession of 11,503 muskets, 6 pieces of cannon, 1041 pair of pistols, and 1099 swords. This militia forms a body of hardy, robust, and intrepid men. During the revolutionary war, the bravery and enterprise of the Green-mountain Boys became proverbial, nor did this character suffer during the late contest.

REVENUE....The revenue of this state arises from rates and taxes granted from time to time by the legislature, and assessed in proportion to the polls and rateable estate.

GOVERNMENT AND LAWS....The government of Vermont is a representative republic, in which the principles of democracy predominate. To the constitution a declaration, or bill of rights, affirmed to be a part of the constitution, is prefixed, embracing the usual topics of the equality, independence and inherent rights of man. By the constitution, revised in 1792, the supreme legislative power is vested in a house of representatives of the freemen; styled The General Assembly of the State of Vermont. Every town has a right to choose a representative on the first Tuesday of September, annually. The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, or lieutenant governor, and a council of twelve persons, chosen annually, by the freemen, at the same time they elect their representatives. They may give advice, but they have no other power in making laws, except, in some cases, of suspending their operation till the next session of the legislature. Amongst the powers granted to them, is that of pardoning criminals, except in cases of treason and murder. The qualifications necessary to constitute a freeman or elector, are, that he shall be twenty-one years of age, of good moral character, have resided one year in the state, and take an oath that he will give his vote, as

in his conscience he shall think most conducive to the good of the state.

One provision in the constitution of Vermont merits attention. The people *may*, every seventh year, on the last Wednesday in March, elect a *council of censors*, to consist of thirteen, and to continue in office one year. Members of the council and assembly are disqualified for censors. Their duty is to inquire whether the constitution has been preserved inviolate; whether the powers of government, in their several departments, have been properly exercised; the taxes justly laid; the public monies rightly disposed of; the laws duly executed, &c. They may censure; order impeachments; propose amendments to the constitution, and call a convention, which must assemble within two years, after the expiration of their censorship.

HISTORY....Who the aboriginal inhabitants of Vermont were, is not at this day certainly known. Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, and the French of Canada, each in their turns, have laid claim to this territory. The general court of Massachusetts granted, in 1716, a tract of land, in the south-east part of the state, containing more than 100,000 acres; but no settlement was made on it till 1724. This year the government of Massachusetts built fort Dummer upon Connecticut river. The French advanced, in 1731, up lake Champlain, built a fort at Crown Point, and began a settlement on the east side of the lake. New Hampshire now began to grant parcels of land, in the same territory, in consequence of which a dispute arose between her and Massachusetts, which was settled by the decision of George II, in 1740. From this period till 1764, this territory was considered as lying within the jurisdiction of New Hampshire. Not doubting the validity of the New Hampshire title, adventurers flocked from all parts, and the settlements increased rapidly. To check New Hampshire in her proceedings, and intimidate the settlers, Coldin, governor of New York, issued a proclamation, in 1763, reviving an old claim of the duke of York to this territory. A counter proclamation was issued, 1764, by New Hampshire, declaring the duke of York's claim obsolete, and that her own grants would be confirmed, though the jurisdiction should be altered. New York applied to the crown, and, on July 20, 1764, his majesty declared the Connecticut river, from where it enters Massachusetts, to the 45° of north latitude to be the boundary between New Hampshire and New York. New York immediately declared the New Hampshire grants illegal, and assumed the right of re-granting the soil, which was attended with great expense to those who complied with her requisitions: but most of the settlers refused; and altercations and lawsuits were commenced which always terminated in favour of New York. This was not the worst. Land speculators hovered round like birds of prey, and, wherever they saw an opportunity, pounced upon the cottages and farms of the unhappy settlers, and turned them out of doors. Irritated and incensed, the inhabitants arose in their own defence, and vigorously repelled the aggressions of the new claimants. The militia of New York were now called out to assist the sheriff; but it produced little or no effect. Ethan Allen, a bold, enterprising, ambitious man, placed himself at the head of the settlers, and assisted by Seth Warner, directed their proceedings. In 1767 the king interposed, and enjoined New York to suspend making any more grants in the said territory till his further pleasure should be known.

Tryon, governor of New York, attempted, in 1772, some conciliatory measures, but without the desired effect. At last the government of New York, exasperated and chagrined, passed an act, in 1774, the most vindictive and despotic of any to be found upon the records of colonial legislation. It subjected all the offending settlers, who should neglect or refuse to surrender themselves, within seventy days, as traitors attainted and convicted of felony, to the penalty of death, without benefit of clergy. At the same time the governor offered, by proclamation, a reward of 50*l.* a head for apprehending Allen, Warner, and six others. This blasted all hopes of reconciliation. The committees for the townships held a general meeting, and entered into resolutions to defend their friends and brethren. At the same time a plan was formed to have the New Hampshire grants erected into a separate royal government. On the 13th of March, 1775, some of the settlers took possession of Westminster court house, early in the morning, and prevented the officers of the court from entering. At night, the sheriff, with the officers of the court, attended by an armed force, repaired to the court-house, and, being refused admittance, fired into the house, killed one person and wounded several. Shortly after this event, the battle at Lexington announced the commencement of hostilities between Great Britain and the colonies, and suspended for the present these colonial feuds:

In the fall of 1775 application was made by the settlers to congress, convened at Philadelphia, for information and advice. The next year a convention met, who drew up and presented a petition to congress, which not being satisfactorily answered, a second convention met in order to ascertain the prevailing opinion of the people. Finding it in favour of a total separation from New York, a general convention was called, in 1777, which declared the territory, comprehending the New Hampshire grants, a free and independent jurisdiction or state. This revived the controversy with New York. Both parties applied to congress, but New York, by the influence of her representatives, prevailed, and resolutions were passed, censuring the conduct of the convention, and refusing the New Hampshire grants admission into the federal union, as an independent state. In 1778 some events occurred in New Hampshire unfavourable to the independence of Vermont. The inhabitants of sixteen towns on the east side of Connecticut river, renounced their allegiance to New Hampshire, with a view either of uniting with Vermont or of erecting themselves into a separate state. New Hampshire and some of the other states, became apprehensive that the conduct of Vermont would countenance discontented persons, in fomenting divisions, rebellion and insubordination throughout the Union. Vermont, at the request of the sixteen towns, admitted them into political fellowship, and invited others to follow their example. But she soon grew tired of this union, and dissolved all connection with them, February 12, 1779. Encouraged by this and other divisions, New Hampshire, New York, and even Massachusetts revived their respective claims to Vermont. The controversy with New York, assuming a hostile appearance, congress appointed a committee to repair to Vermont, for the purpose of settling the differences, and appeasing the animosities between the parties, but nothing was effected. Congress, fearful of alienating the affections of the powerful states of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and New York, from the confederation, adopted a temporising policy. Perceiving the drift of congress, and

feeling herself neglected and injured, Vermont resolved to increase and consolidate her power. For this purpose she extended her jurisdiction, at the request of the inhabitants, over a part of the territories of New Hampshire and of New York, by which she gained both strength and popularity. About this time, rumours prevailed, that secret negotiations were commenced by the settlers with the Canadian generals, the object of which was to separate Vermont from the confederation. Congress took the alarm, and, in order to counteract these machinations, passed resolves, in 1781, favourable to the admission of Vermont into the union, as an independent state: but when her commissioners appeared at Philadelphia, in 1782, that honourable body still pursued the policy of evasion and procrastination. From the acknowledgment of our independence, by Great Britain, till the year 1790, Vermont manifested no inclination to become a member of the federal union. She had seen the weakness, irresolution, and instability of congress; and she wished to see the new constitution go into operation before she would offer her hand. The contentions between her and New-York, which had now lasted 26 years, were finally adjusted, by commissioners appointed by their respective legislatures; and the claims of New-York, both to jurisdiction and soil, extinguished in consideration of 30,000 dollars. Satisfied with the spirit and energy of the new administration, the assembly of Vermont called a convention, to take into consideration the expediency of joining the federal union. They convened January 6, 1791, and after a debate of three days, the question was carried in the affirmative by a majority of 103. On February 18, she was, by an act of congress, admitted, and constitutes the 14th state of the American confederation.

NEW-HAMPSHIRE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Length 168	between {	{ 9,500
Breadth from 90 to 19.		
	{ 42° 41' and 45° 11' North latitude.	{
	{ 70° 40' and 72° 28' West longitude.	

BOUNDARIES....New-Hampshire is bounded by Lower Canada on the north : by the district of Maine and the Atlantic Ocean on the east ; by Massachusetts on the south ; and by Connecticut river, which separates it from Vermont, on the west.

It is divided into six counties, as follows :

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Rockingham,	Portsmouth and Concord.
Strafford,	Dover and Durham.
Cheshire,	Charlestown and Keene.
Hillsborough,	Amherst.
Grafton,	Plymouth.
Coos,	Lancaster.

MOUNTAINS....New-Hampshire is intersected with several ridges of mountains, among which the principal is the lofty ridge which divides the Connecticut and Merrimack rivers, denominated the Height of Land. But the White Mountains are undoubtedly the highest in all New-England. Their height is said to be 11,000 feet above the level of the sea. They are almost continually covered with snow and ice, whence they have received the name of White Mountains. Though they are seventy miles inland, they are visible many leagues off at sea. One of their loftiest summits, which makes a majestic appearance, along the shore of Massachusetts, has lately been distinguished by the name of Mount Washington.

RIVERS AND LAKES....The most considerable rivers of this state are the Connecticut, Merrimack, Piscataqua, Upper and Lower Ammonoosuck ; besides many other smaller streams. The chief lakes are Winnipiseogee, Umbagog, Sunopee, Squam, and Great Ossipee. Connecticut river washes the west side of this state, its whole length ; its principal branches in New-Hampshire are Israel and John's river, the Upper, Lower, and Wild Ammonoosuck, Sugar, and Cold rivers. A bridge crosses Connecticut river between Haverhill and Newbury, between Cornish and Windsor, and between Hanover and Norwich ; another crosses the same river at Bellows' falls in Walpole. Merrimack river is formed from the Pemigewasset, which has its source near Moosehillock mountain, and the Winnipiseogee river, from the

lake of the same name. They unite in Sanbornton, and take the name Merrimack, which pursues at first a south course, then sweeps a bold arch easterly, and falls into the sea, three miles below Newburyport. The last part of its course is in Massachusetts. Bridges cross this river at Plymouth, Boscawen, Concord, Dunbarton, at the isle of Hookset, and at Goffstown, below Amoskeag falls. From the west it receives Blackwater, a sluggish stream, above Salisbury: also Contoocook, below Boscawen; Piscataquog, in Goffstown, and Sowhegan, below Bedford. From the east it receives Suncook, below Pembroke. Piscataqua has its source in a pond in Wakefield; its course is about 40 miles. To the falls in Somersworth, it is called Salmon-fall river; thence it assumes the name of Newichawannock, till it unites with the Cocheco river. Five miles above Portsmouth, a stupendous bridge crosses this river. Its length is 2600 feet; 2244 are planked; near the centre is an arch of 244 feet.

Winnipiseogee lake is 24 miles long, and from 3 to 12 broad. Massabesick lake is 30 miles in circuit.

METALS, MINERALS...Iron, lead, and copper ores, and several kinds of earths and clays are found in this state. It produces red and yellow ochres, steatites, or soap-rock, the best lapis specularis, a kind of talc, commonly called isinglass; crystals, alum, vitriol, free-stone, and black lead.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE....The air of New-Hampshire is healthful, and the weather is commonly serene, and not so subject to variation as in the more southern states. From the vicinity of the White Mountains, which, as has been said, are almost always covered with snow and ice, this country is extremely cold in winter. In summer the heat is great, but of short duration. The shore is mostly a sandy beach, adjoining to which are salt marshes, intersected by creeks, which produce good pasture for cattle and sheep. The interval lands on the margin of great rivers are the most valuable, because they are often overflowed and enriched by the water from the uplands, which brings a fat slime or sediment. On Connecticut river these lands are from a quarter of a mile to a mile and a half on each side, and produce grass, corn and grain, especially wheat, in greater abundance and perfection than the same kind of soil does in the higher lands. The wide spreading hills are esteemed as warm and rich; rocky moist land is accounted good for pasture; drained swamps have a deep mellow soil, and the vallies between the hills are generally very productive. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. Wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, pulse, hops, esculent roots and plants, flax, and hemp, are raised in immense quantities in New-Hampshire. Apples and pears are the most common fruits in this state; but tree fruit of the first quality cannot be raised in such a northern climate as this without particular attention. The uncultivated lands are covered with extensive forests of pine, fir, cedar, oak, hemlock, &c.

MANUFACTURES....A cotton manufactory is established in Exeter. At Amoskeag falls, in Goffstown, is a manufactory of cotton and wool. A company is incorporated to manufacture cotton and wool at Pembroke. At Milford is a cotton and wool manufactory. Great quantities of iron are wrought in Franconia.* The following sum-

* Parish.

mary of the manufactures of this state is from the returns of the marshal in 1810.

	Yards.
Cotton goods made in families,	512,985
Mixed do. do. do.	930,978
Flaxen do. do. do.	1,090,320
Blended and unnamed cloths and stuffs,	112,540
Tow cloths,	720,989
Woollen goods made in families,	900,273

There were 12 cotton manufacturing establishments; 20,970 looms; 109 carding machines; 135 fulling mills; 5 forges; 14 naileries; 236 tanneries; 19 flax-seed oil mills; 18 distilleries; 6 paper mills; and 195 rope walks.*

CANALS....In this state a canal is cut round the falls of Amoskeag in the Merrimack. The descent of the falls is about 50 feet; boats ascend through ten locks. A canal is also cut through the marsh from Hampton to the Merrimack, near Newburyport. Round the falls of Connecticut river, in Lebanon, canals are dug, by which boats ascend to Bath, nearly 300 miles from the sea. The rapids above are so extensive as to discourage any further improvement in the navigation of the river.

RELIGION....The great body of the people are congregationalists. The baptists are numerous, and there are a few presbyterians, episcopalians, and quakers. In Canterbury there is a village of shaking quakers, and another in Enfield. Their plantations are fertile and highly improved; their fields, gardens and orchards, have an air of neatness, and every thing proclaims the industry of the owners.

POPULATION....The number of inhabitants in New-Hampshire, according to the census taken by order of congress in 1790, was 141,885. By that of 1800, they amounted to 183,858; and by that of 1810, to 214,360. In 1767, they were estimated at only 52,700. The males and females are nearly equal.

CHIEF TOWNS....Portsmouth is the metropolis, and the largest town in New-Hampshire, lat. 42° 46' N. long. 70° 57' W. Its harbour is one of the finest on the continent, having a sufficient depth of water for vessels of any burden, and being so well defended against storms by the land, that ships may securely ride there in any season of the year. Concord is a very flourishing town, pleasantly situated on the Merrimack river. The legislature of late have commonly held their sessions here; and, from its central situation, and a thriving back country, it will probably become the permanent seat of government.†

TRADE....The trade of this state is considerable, though it is not to be ranked among the great commercial states. Its exports consist of lumber, ship-timber, whale-oil, flax-seed, live-stock, beef, pork, Indian corn, pot and pearl-ashes, &c. In 1790, there belonged to Piscataqua 33 vessels above one hundred tons, and 50 under that burden. The value of the exports from that port in 1793, amounted to 198,197 dollars. The exports of this state for the year, ending September 30th, 1810, amounted to 434,650 dollars; exclusive of this, a large

* Coxe's statement.

† The legislature have lately erected a state prison in this town.

portion of their produce is carried to market in Massachusetts and Connecticut. The bank of Hampshire was established in 1792, with a capital of 60,000 dollars; by an act of assembly the stockholders can increase it to 200,000 dollars in specie, and 100,000 dollars in any other estate.

GOVERNMENT....According to the present constitution, the legislative power resides in a senate and house of representatives, which together are here styled the *general court*, and the supreme executive authority is vested in a *governor and council*, the latter consisting of five members.

The constitution of New-Hampshire differs in no essential part from that of Massachusetts, except in the pecuniary qualifications of the members of the general court; less property sufficing to qualify a candidate in the former state, for a seat in either house.

COLLEGES AND ACADEMIES....The only college in this state is at Hanover, called Dartmouth college, which is amply endowed with lands, and is in a flourishing situation. The principal academies are those of Exeter, New Ipswich, Atkinson, and Amherst.

CHARACTER....The inhabitants are industrious, hardy, and independent. In a great part of the state the population is so thin, that the advantages of public worship and schools, are not so generally enjoyed, as in the more populous states of New-England. Many of the young men emigrate in the character of artisans and day labourers. Too free a use of spirituous liquors is among their faults.*

HISTORY....Perhaps this province first began to be settled in the year 1629, when the Reverend John Wheelwright purchased a part of the land from the Indian sachems; though he did not go to reside there himself till 1635, when he was disfranchised and banished by the government of Massachusetts. In consequence of great divisions and animosities that distracted the colony, in 1641, the inhabitants solicited the interposition of Massachusetts, and became united with it under the same jurisdiction. But in the year 1679, it was again disjoined from Massachusetts, and erected into a distinct government by the crown of Great Britain, a Mr. Cutt being appointed the first royal governor; though the same person was mostly governor of both provinces. The progress of population and improvement was impeded much by a destructive Indian war, which broke out about the year 1692. A controversy about the divisional line between the two provinces having existed for many years, the people of New-Hampshire complained to the king and council, in 1740, against the joint governor, whom they accused of being partial to Massachusetts. In order to remove the cause of complaint, the king ever afterwards appointed a separate governor to preside over the colony of New-Hampshire. When the revolutionary war broke out, New-Hampshire joined the other states, and sent two delegates to the general congress, convened at Philadelphia, in 1774. The federal constitution as it now exists was ratified by this state, June 21, 1788, by a considerable majority of votes.

* Belknap.

MASSACHUSETTS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Length 150	between {	48,000
Breadth 60		
	{ 64° 57' and 73° 38' West longitude.	
	{ 41° 13' and 48° 15' North latitude.	

BOUNDARIES....Massachusetts, which, with the district of Maine, constitutes one of the United States of America, is bounded on the north by Vermont and New-Hampshire; on the east by the Atlantic Ocean; on the south by the Atlantic, Rhode-Island, and Connecticut; and on the west by New-York.

This state is divided into twenty-one counties.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Suffolk,	Boston { 42° 23' north latitude. 70° 59' west longitude.
Norfolk,	Dedham.
Essex,	Salem.
Middlesex,	Charlestown.
Hampshire,	Northampton.
Worcester,	Worcester.
Plymouth,	Plymouth.
Barnstable,	Barnstable.
Duke's county,	Edgarton.
Nantucket,	Nantucket.
Bristol,	Taunton.
Berkshire,	Stockbridge.
Franklin,	Greenfield.

DISTRICT OF MAINE.

York,	York.
Cumberland,	Portland.
Lincoln,	Pownalborough.
Hancock,	Hancock.
Washington,	Machias.
Kennebec,	Augusta.
Somerset,	Norridgewoc.
Oxford,	Paris.

BAYS, CAPES, AND ISLANDS....The chief bays are Massachusetts, Ipswich, Boston, Plymouth, and Barnstable; the most remarkable

capcs, Ann, Cod, Malabar, Poge, and Gay Head; the principal islands, Plumb island, Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, Elizabeth islands, and numerous small isles in Boston Bay.

RIVERS....The country is well watered by a number of small rivers, of which the principal are Mystic and Charles rivers.

METALS, MINERALS....Iron ore, in immense quantities, is found in various parts of this state; as likewise copper ore, black lead, pipe-maker's clay, yellow and red ochre, alum, and slate. Several mineral springs have been found in different parts of the country.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS....The greater part of this state enjoys a climate auspicious to the health and longevity of the inhabitants; as it has been computed that one person in seven lives to the age of 70 years. The winters are long and severe, but the air is generally dry and clear. The heats also are sometimes intense, but not of long continuance, the medial range of the thermometer being about 50°. According to observations made in 1784 and 1788, the fall of water is annually about 35½ inches. Whatever may be the cause, the soil of Massachusetts has been too sterile to produce wheat for more than a century. This grain was raised in large crops till the year 1664, when it was first blasted. In a few years afterwards the people were discouraged from sowing it; most of the wheat flour consumed is imported. On the sea coast the land is low, and mostly sandy. About 30 miles from the shore the land improves, and between the hills it is cultivated with success; producing rich meadows, valuable crops of flax, rye, Indian corn, and other summer grain. Orchards are also numerous, and yield a great plenty of the choicest fruits.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....The number of inhabitants in Massachusetts was, in 1790, 378,787. By the census of 1800, they amounted to 422,845; and those of the District of Maine to 151,719, together 574,564. In 1810, the population amounted to 700,745 persons, 472,040 of which, belonged to Massachusetts proper. There are no slaves: slavery was abolished by the legislature some years ago. In 1751, the population was stated at 164,484; in 1773, at 300,000. Females are to males as 103 to 100 throughout the state, and in Boston as 12 to 11. The militia of this state is very respectable; by regular returns made to the government in 1812, they amounted to 70,530 effective men, in which number there is a full proportion of cavalry and artillery. They had at the same time, 48,094 muskets, 1376 rifles, 157 pieces of cannon, 2330 pairs of pistols, and 2358 swords.

CHIEF TOWNS....Boston is the capital of this state, the largest town in New-England, and the third in size and rank in the United States. It is built on a peninsula of irregular form, at the bottom of Massachusetts Bay, and is joined to the main land by an isthmus at the south end of the town. It is two miles long, but of unequal breadth; the broadest part is upwards of a mile. It contains twenty-four edifices for public worship, of which ten are for congregationalists, three for episcopalians, two for methodists, and four for baptists: the friends, Roman-catholics, Sandemanians, universalians, and African baptists, have one each. There are also seven free-schools, besides a great number of private schools. The harbour is capacious enough for 500 vessels to ride at anchor in good depth of water, while the entrance is so narrow as scarcely to admit two ships abreast. The wharfs and quays in Boston are about eighty in number, and very convenient for

vessels. Long Wharf, or Boston Pier, in particular, extends from the bottom of State-street 1743 feet into the harbour in a straight line. The breadth is 104 feet. At the end are 17 feet of water at ebb-tide. Long Wharf is covered on the north side with large and commodious warehouses, and in every respect exceeds every thing of the kind in the United States. Charles river and West Boston bridges are highly useful and ornamental to Boston, and both are on Charles river, which mingles its waters with those of Mystic river, in Boston harbour. Charles river bridge connects Boston with Charlestown, in Middlesex county, and is 1503 feet long, 42 feet broad, and stands on 75 piers. West Boston is 3483 feet long, stands on 180 piers, and exceeds the other as much in elegance as in length. The view of the town, as it is approached from the sea, is truly beautiful and picturesque. It lies in a circular and pleasingly irregular form round the harbour, and is ornamented with spires, above which the monument of Beacon Hill rises pre-eminent; on its top is a gilt eagle, bearing the arms of the union, and on the base of the column are inscriptions commemorating some of the most remarkable events of the revolutionary war. The town is governed by nine select men, chosen at an annual meeting in March, when twelve overseers, twelve constables, and some other officers are chosen. Attempts have been made to change the government of the town from its present form to that of a city: but this measure not according with the democratic spirit of the people, has as yet failed. The number of houses in 1800, was 2870. The population in 1790, was 18,038; in 1800, 24,937; and in 1810, 33,250.

Salem is the second town in this state. It contained, in 1800, 980 houses, and 9,457 inhabitants. In 1810, the number of inhabitants was 12,613. It is a very commercial place, and is connected with Beverly by Essex bridge, upwards of 1500 feet in length, erected in 1789. The harbour is defended by a fort.

Plymouth was the first town built in New-England, and is peopled principally by the descendants of the first settlers. The rock on which their forefathers landed was conveyed in 1774, from the shore to a square in the centre of the town, where it remains as a monument. The situation of the town is pleasant and healthful.

Portland is the capital of the District of Maine. It has a most excellent, safe, and capacious harbour, and is one of the most thriving commercial towns in the commonwealth of Massachusetts. In 1795, a fort, a citadel, and a battery of ten pieces of cannon, were erected for its defence.

Charlestown stands on a peninsula between Mystic river and a bay of Charles river. In this town is the state prison, built of stone, 200 feet long, by 44 wide. The wings are four. The centre is five stories. The floors are of hewn stone, many of them weighing three or four tons; the doors are of iron. In the lower story are 28 cells, in the second 30. The third and fourth stories contain 16 rooms each. In the fourth is a convenient chapel, and in the fifth an hospital. The comfort and religious instruction of the convicts are carefully regarded. In this town is also a marine hospital belonging to the United States.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES....This state, including the District of Maine, owns more than three times as many tons of shipping as any other of the states; and more than one third part of the whole

that belongs to the United States. Upwards of 29,000 tons are employed in carrying on the fisheries, 46,000 in the coasting business, and 96,500 in trading with almost all parts of the world. Pot and pearl ashes, staves, flax-seed, and bees-wax, are carried chiefly to Great Britain, in remittance for their manufactures; masts and provisions to the East Indies; fish, oil, beef, pork, lumber, and candles, are carried to the West Indies for their produce, and the two first articles, fish and oil, to France, Spain, and Portugal; roots, vegetables, and fruits to Nova Scotia and New-Brunswick; hats, saddlery, cabinet-work, men's and women's shoes, nails, tow-cloth, barley, hops, butter, and cheese, to the southern states. The value of exports in the year 1791, was 2,445,975 dollars, in 1794, 5,380,703 dollars, in 1802, 13,492,632 dollars, and in 1810, 13,013,048 dollars. Great quantities of nails are made in this state. The machine invented by Caleb Leach, of Plymouth, will cut and head 5000 nails in a day under the direction of a youth of either sex. There is also a machine for cutting nails at Newburyport, invented by Mr. Jacob Perkins, which will turn out two hundred thousand nails in a day. The nails are said to have a decided superiority over those of English manufacture, and are sold 20 per cent. cheaper. There are in this state upwards of twenty paper-mills, which make more than 90,000 reams of writing, printing, and wrapping-paper, annually. There were in 1792, 62 distilleries, which distilled in one year 1,900,000 gallons. In 1810, the number of gallons distilled from molasses was 2,472,000, and from fruit and grain, 380,210. There are several snuff, oil, chocolate, and powder-mills; there are indeed few articles which are essentially necessary, and minister to the comfort and convenience of life, that are not manufactured in this state.

GOVERNMENT... The legislature of Massachusetts consists of a senate, and a house of representatives; which, together with the governor and lieutenant-governor, are elected annually by the people; electors must be twenty-one years of age, have freeholds of the annual value of three pounds, or personal estate to the value of sixty pounds. To be eligible to the office of governor or lieutenant-governor, the candidate must have resided in the state seven years, and during that time have been seised of a freehold of one thousand pounds. Senators must have resided five years in the state, and have possessed a freehold to the value of three hundred pounds, or personal property to the value of six hundred pounds. A representative must have resided one year in the town which he is chosen to represent, and have been seised therein of freehold estate to the value of one hundred pounds, or been possessed of personal property to the value of two hundred pounds. From the persons returned as senators, being forty in all, nine counsellors are annually elected, by joint ballot of both houses, for the purpose of advising the governor in the execution of his office. All judicial officers, the attorney and solicitor-general, sheriffs, &c. are, with the advice of the council, appointed by the governor. The judges (except justices of the peace, whose commissions expire in seven years, but may be renewed) hold their offices during good behaviour.

RELIGION... There is no established religion in Massachusetts, but every sect of christians is allowed the free exercise of its religion, and is equally under the protection of the laws. The body of the people are congregationalists, professing Calvinistic doctrines. The other denominations are quakers, baptists, universalists, methodists,

and episcopalians. Perhaps in no country in the world are the institutions of religion more respected, morals more pure, or the deportment of the people more inoffensive.

UNIVERSITY, COLLEGES, &c.... There is a university at Cambridge, four miles west of Boston, the college buildings of which are four in number, and named Harvard, Hollis, and Massachusetts Halls, and Holden Chapel. This university generally has from 140 to 200 students; and as respects its library, philosophical apparatus, and professorships, is at present the first literary institution on this continent. It takes date from the year 1638, seven years after the first settlement in the township. There are several well endowed colleges in this state, among which are, Bowdoin College, in Brunswick, Maine; Williams College, in Williamstown, Berkshire county; and Divinity College in Andover. Most of the principal towns have academies.

In May, 1780, the council and house of representatives of Massachusetts, passed an act for incorporating and establishing a society for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and sciences. It is entitled the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. The first members were named in the act, and never were to be more than two hundred, nor less than forty.

HISTORY.... An account of the first settlement and early history of Massachusetts has already been given under the general head of New-England. In consequence of the revolt of the American colonies from the authority of Great Britain (of the origin and progress of which an account has been given in another place) on the 25th July, 1776, by an order from the council at Boston, the declaration of the American congress, absolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the British crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the state-house in that town; and a constitution or form of government, for the commonwealth of Massachusetts, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and established by the inhabitants of that province, and took place in October, 1780.

RHODE-ISLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length	47	} between	{ 41° 26' and 42° 10' North latitude. }	1,500
Breadth	37		{ 71° 17' and 71° 40' West longitude. }	

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS....Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, which together form the smallest of the United States, are bounded on the north and east by Massachusetts; on the south by the Atlantic Ocean; on the west by Connecticut. This state is divided into the five following counties :

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Newport,	Newport.
Providence,	Providence.
Washington,	South Kingston.
Bristol,	Bristol.
Kent,	Warwick.

ISLANDS, HARBOURS....Narraganset bay contains several fertile islands, the principal of which are, Rhode Island, Conanicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's, and Hog Islands. Block Island is the southernmost land belonging to the state. Rhode Island, from which the state takes its name, is about 15 miles in length, and about three and a half broad, on an average. The harbours are, Newport, Providence, Wickford, Patuxet, Warren, and Bristol.

RIVERS....This state is intersected in all directions by rivers, the chief of which are Providence and Taunton rivers, which fall into Narraganset bay.

METALS, MINERALS....Iron ore is found in great plenty in several parts of this state; there is also a copper mine, mixed with iron strongly impregnated with load-stone. Abundance of lime-stone is also found here.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE....Rhode Island is as healthy a country as any in America. The winters, in the maritime parts of the state, are milder than in the inland country, the air being softened by a sea vapour, which also enriches the soil. The summers are delightful, especially in Rhode Island, where the extreme heats, which prevail in other parts of America, are allayed by cool and refreshing breezes from the sea. This state produces rye, barley, oats, and, in some parts, wheat sufficient for home consumption; and the various kinds of grasses, fruits, and culinary roots and plants, in great abun-

dance, and in perfection ; cheese and cider are made for exportation. The north-western parts of the state are but thinly inhabited, and are more rocky and barren than the other parts.

POPULATION....The state of Rhode Island in 1790, contained 68,825 persons, of whom 948 were slaves. In 1801, the number of inhabitants was 69,122, of whom 380 were slaves. By the census of 1810, the population amounted to 76,931, of whom 108 were slaves. The increase of population in this state is insignificant, owing to excessive emigrations to Vermont and other new states.

CHIEF TOWNS....The principal towns in the state of Rhode Island, are Providence and Newport. The former is situate at the head of Narraganset bay, on both sides of Providence river, over which is a bridge 160 feet long and twenty-two wide. It is a large and handsome town, containing several elegant buildings, and about 10,000 inhabitants.

Newport is situate at the south-west end of Rhode-Island. The harbour (which is one of the finest in the world) spreads westward before the town. The entrance is easy and safe, and a large fleet may anchor in it, and ride in perfect security. Newport contains about one thousand houses, principally of wood, and about 8000 inhabitants.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES....The town of Bristol carries on a considerable trade to the West Indies, and to different parts of the United States ; but by far the greatest part of the commerce of Rhode Island is at present carried on by the inhabitants of the flourishing town of Providence, which had, in 1791, 129 sail of vessels, containing 11,942 tons. The exports from this state are, flax-seed, lumber, horses, cattle, beef, pork, fish, poultry, onions, butter, cheese, barley, grain, spirits, cotton, and linen goods. The imports consist of European and West Indian goods, and log-wood from the bay of Honduras. Upwards of 600 vessels enter and clear annually at the different ports in the state. The amount of exports from this state to foreign countries for one year, ending September 30, 1791, was 470,131 dollars ; in 1794, 954,573 dollars, and in 1802, 2,433,263 dollars. The citizens of this state have distinguished themselves in manufactures. They not only carry on a great number in their own state, but are proprietors of others in Connecticut and Massachusetts.* There are upwards of sixty cotton factories in different parts of the state. Jeans, fustians, denims, thicksets, velvets, &c. are here manufactured, and sent to the southern states. Large quantities of linen and tow-cloth are made in different parts of this state for exportation ; there are also very considerable manufactures of iron, such as bar and sheet iron, steel, nail-rods and nails, implements of husbandry, stoves, pots, and other household utensils ; the iron-work of shipping, anchors, and bells.

GOVERNMENT....The constitution of Rhode Island is founded on the charter granted by Charles II, in 1663 ; and the frame of government was not essentially altered by the revolution. The legislature of the state consists of two branches, a senate, or upper house, composed of ten members, called *assistants*, besides the governor and deputy-governor, and a house of representatives, composed of deputies from the several towns. The members of the legislature are chosen twice a year ; and there are two sessions of this body

* Parish's Geography.

annually, viz. on the first Wednesday in May, and the last Wednesday in October.

The governor is President of the Council of Assistants and has a casting vote. He signs commissions, but has no important appointments in his gift.

RELIGION....Liberty of conscience has been inviolably maintained in this state ever since its first settlement. So little has the civil authority to do with religion here, that no contract between a minister and a society (unless incorporated for that purpose) is of any force. It is probably for these reasons that so many different sects have ever been found here; and that the Sabbath, and all religious institutions, have been more neglected in this than any other of the New-England states.

COLLEGE....There is a public Library at Newport, called the Redwood Library, in honour of Abraham Redwood, the founder. He presented the company with 1294 volumes, valued at 500*l.* sterling, at the time it was founded, which was in or about the year 1747. A college, called Rhode Island college, is established at Providence. It is a spacious edifice, and contains upwards of sixty students. It has a library, containing nearly 3000 volumes, and a valuable philosophical apparatus. The funds amount to about two thousand pounds.

HISTORY....This state was first settled from Massachusetts. Mr. Roger Williams, a minister, who came over to New-England in 1631, was charged with holding a variety of errors, and was on that account forced to leave his house, land, wife, and children, at Salem, in the dead of the winter, and to seek a residence without the limits of Massachusetts. Governor Winthrop advised him to pursue his course to Nehiganset, or Narraganset bay, which he did, and fixed himself at Secunk, or Seekhonk, now Rehoboth. But that place being within the bounds of the Plymouth colony, governor Winslow, in a friendly manner, advised him to remove to the other side of the river, where the lands were not covered by any patent. Accordingly, in 1636, Mr. Williams, and four others, crossed Seekhonk river, and landed among the Indians, by whom they were hospitably received, and thus laid the foundation of a town, which, from a sense of God's merciful providence to him, he called Providence. Here he was soon after joined by a number of others; and though they were secured from the Indians by the terror of the English, yet they, for a considerable time, suffered much from fatigue and want: but they enjoyed liberty of conscience, which is still maintained in this state, with the greatest latitude. The people pay no taxes for the support of the clergy, the ministers depending wholly on the liberality of their hearers for support. The most numerous sect is that of the Baptists. The president of the college at Providence is always of that religious society.

CONNECTICUT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length	100	} between {	71° 20' and 73° 15' West longitude.	4,674
Breadth	72		41° 0' and 42° 2' North latitude.	

BOUNDARIES....Connecticut is bounded on the north by Massachusetts; on the east by Rhode Island; on the south, by the sound which divides it from Long-Island; and on the west by the state of New-York.

DIVISIONS ...It is divided into eight counties, as follows :

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Fairfield,	Fairfield.
New-Haven,	New-Haven.
Middlesex,	Middleton.
New-London,	New-London.
Litchfield,	Litchfield.
Hartford,	Hartford.
Tolland,	Tolland.
Windham,	Windham.

These are subdivided into 119 townships.

HARBOURS, RIVERS....The whole of the sea coast is indented with harbours, many of which are safe and commodious; but those of New-London and New-Haven are the most important. The principal rivers in this state are, the Connecticut, Housatonnuc, Thames, Paucatuc, Quinipiac, Byram, Farmington, Naugatuc, and their branches. In the Housatonnuc, there is a remarkable fall of 60 feet perpendicular.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE....Connecticut, though subject to the extremes of heat and cold in their seasons, and to frequent sudden changes, is very healthful. It is generally broken land made up of mountains, hills, and vallies; and is exceedingly well watered. Some parts of it are thin and barren. Its principal productions are Indian corn, rye, wheat in many parts of the state, oats, and barley, which are heavy and good, and of late, buckwheat; flax in large quantities; some hemp; potatoes of several kinds, which are common to the climate. The soil is very well calculated for pasturage and mowing, which enables the farmers to feed great numbers of neat cattle and horses, and to make a large quantity of excellent cheese.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....In 1790, the population of this state amounted to 237,946 persons, of whom 2764 were slaves; in 1801, to 251,002, of whom 951 were slaves; and in 1810, to 261,942, of whom 310 were slaves. The inhabitants are almost entirely of English descent: there are no Dutch, French, or Germans, and very few Scotch or Irish people, in any part of the state. This is the best peopled state in the Union. The militia is about 21,600 men.

CHIEF TOWNS....There is a considerable number of pleasant and well situated towns in this state, neat, though built principally of wood. The five principal ones are called *cities*, being incorporated and possessing extensive municipal jurisdiction; viz. Hartford and New-Haven, New-London, Norwich, and Middleton; the two first being interchangeably the seat of the state government, and may of course be called the capitals of the state. Hartford is situated on Connecticut river, at the head of navigation, and about 50 miles from its mouth. In 1810, the population was about 6000, and it contained 600 dwelling houses, some of them handsomely built of brick, six places of public worship, and a state or court house. It is a thriving commercial and manufacturing town. New-Haven lies at the head of a small bay that makes up from Long-Island sound. This is the handsomest and most regular built town in Connecticut, though the houses are constructed principally of wood. It is situated on an agreeable plain, and is a place of considerable trade. It contained in 1800, a few more than five thousand inhabitants, about five hundred dwelling houses, a state house, a handsome college, and five places of public worship, three of which belong to the Congregationalists. The population in 1810, was 6,967; the number of houses was 750. There are fifteen public schools and eight private ones. New-London stands on the river Thames, near its mouth. The harbour is excellent, the best perhaps in Connecticut, and the trade of the city extensive and flourishing. It contains 3238 inhabitants, and is fortified by two forts, one on each side of the Thames. Norwich is on the same river, at the head of its navigation. It is a manufacturing and commercial town with about 3000 inhabitants, and contains three places of religious worship, a court house, an academy and free school. Middleton is seated on the river Connecticut, about fifteen miles below Hartford: it contains 5382 inhabitants, and carries on a lucrative commerce with the West Indies. It contains about 300 dwelling houses, a court house, and three houses of religious worship.

TRADE....The exports from this state consist of horses, mules, oxen, oak-staves, hoops, pine-boards, oak plank, beans, Indian corn, fish, beef, and pork. The amount of foreign exports, in the year 1794, amounted to 806,746 dollars, in 1804, to 1,516,110, and in 1810, to 768,643. This last was a *non-intercourse* year.*

GOVERNMENT....The supreme legislative authority of the state is vested in a governor, deputy-governor, twelve assistants or counselors, and the representatives of the people, styled the general assembly. The governor, deputy-governor, and assistants, are annually chosen by the freemen in the month of May. The representatives (their number not to exceed two from each town) are chosen by the freemen twice a year, to attend the two annual sessions, on the second Tuesdays of May and October. The general assembly

* Morse.

is divided into two branches, called the upper and lower houses. The upper house is composed of the governor, deputy-governor, and assistants; the lower house, of the representatives of the people. No law can pass without the concurrence of both houses. The executive authority is vested in the governor and council.

RELIGION....All religions that are consistent with the peace of society are tolerated in Connecticut; and a spirit of liberality and catholicism is increasing. There are very few religious sects in this state. The bulk of the people are congregationalists; and there are besides, episcopalians, baptists, and quakers.

COLLEGES, LITERATURE....Yale college, at New-Haven, is an eminent seminary of learning: it was founded in the year 1700. It has a public library of about 3000 volumes, and a very complete philosophical apparatus. Academies have likewise been established at Greenfield, Plainfield, Norwich, Windham, and Pomfret, some of which are flourishing. In no part of the world is the education of all ranks of people more attended to than in Connecticut; almost every town in the state is divided into districts, and each district has a public school kept in it a greater or less part of every year. A thirst for learning prevails among all ranks of people in the state. More of the young men in Connecticut, in proportion to their numbers, receive a public education than in any of the other states.

HISTORY....The first grant of Connecticut was made by the Plymouth council to the earl of Warwick, in 1630. The year following the earl assigned this grant to lord Say and Seal, lord Brook, and five others. Some Indian traders settled at Windsor in 1633. The same year, a little before the arrival of the English, a few Dutch traders settled at Hartford: and the remains of the settlement are still visible on the banks of Connecticut river. In 1634, lord Say and Seal, &c. sent over a small number of men, who built a fort at Saybrook, and made a treaty with the Pequot Indians for the lands on Connecticut river. Mr. Haynes and Mr. Hooker left Massachusetts bay in 1634, and settled at Hartford. The following year, Mr. Eaton and Mr. Davenport seated themselves at New-Haven. In 1644, the Connecticut adventurers purchased of Mr. Fenwick, agent for lord Say and Seal and lord Brook, their right to the colony for 1600*l*. Connecticut and New-Haven continued two distinct governments for many years. At length, John Winthrop, esq. who had been chosen governor of Connecticut, was employed to solicit a royal charter. In 1662, Charles II. granted a charter, constituting the two colonies for ever one body corporate and politic, by the name of the governor and company of Connecticut. New-Haven took the affair ill; but in 1665 all difficulties were amicably adjusted; and this charter still continues to be the basis of their government. The boundaries between Connecticut and Massachusetts, were settled in 1713. The people of Connecticut claimed a large tract of land within the limits of Pennsylvania, in 1753, and in 1762, a considerable colony settled in Pennsylvania under Connecticut titles, and have kept possession ever since.

NEW-YORK.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 350	} between	40 32 and 45	North latitude.	} 55,000
Breadth 300		73 and 80	West longitude.	

BOUNDARIES....The state of New-York is bounded on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, Connecticut, Massachusetts and Vermont; on the north and north-west by Canada, and lakes Ontario and Erie; on the west by Niagara river, lake Erie and Pennsylvania; and on the south by Pennsylvania and New-Jersey.

DIVISIONS....This state is divided into forty-seven counties, and 471 towns. The counties, with their population and chief towns, are as follows :

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Suffolk,	21,113	Sag-Harbour, Huntington, East-Hampton.
Queen's,	19,536	Jamaica, Newtown, Hempstead.
King's,	8,303	Brooklyn, Flatbush.
Richmond,	5,347	Richmond, Old-Town.
New-York,	96,372	NEW-YORK, 40° 42' N. lat. 74° 10' W. long.
West-Chester,	30,272	Bedford, Peekskill, White Plains.
Rockland,	7,748	Warren, Orangetown, Ramassough.
Orange,	34,347	Newburgh, Goshen, New-Windsor.
Putnam,	10,293	Fredericksburgh, Carmel.
Dutchess,	41,119	Poughkeepsie, Rhinebeck-Flats, Fishkill.
Ulster,	26,576	Kingston, Newpaltz, Saugerties.
Sullivan,	6,108	Monticello, Cohecton, Bloomingburgh.
Delaware,	20,313	Delhi, Waterville, Walton.
Greene,	19,536	Cattskill, Athens, Coxsackie.
Columbia,	32,370	Hudson, Claverack, New-Lebanon.
Albany,	34,661	ALBANY, Rensselaerville.
Rensselaer,	36,382	Troy, Lansingburg, Greenbush.
Schenectady,	10,247	Schenectady, Duanesburgh.
Saratoga,	33,147	Waterford, Ballston-Spa, Saratoga.
Montgomery,	41,906	Johnstown, Palatine, Canajoharie.
Warren,	6,235	Caldwell, Glen's Falls.
Washington,	38,044	Salem, Sandyhill, Whitehall.
Essex,	9,525	Elizabethtown, Essex, Jay.
Clinton,	8,032	Plattsburgh, Champlain, Peru.
Franklin,	2,719	Malore, Chateaugay, Bangor.
Schoharie,	18,945	Schoharie, Middleburgh, Esperance.
Otsego,	38,667	Cooperstown, Cherry-valley, Unadilla.
Herkimer,	22,060	Herkimer, Little-Falls, Fairfield.

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Oneida,	33,828	Utica, Rome, Whitesborough, New-Hartford.
Lewis,	6,433	Lowville, Martinsburgh, Turin.
Jefferson,	15,144	Watertown, Brownville, Sackett's-Harbour.
St. Lawrence,	7,894	Ogdensburgh, Madrid, Lisbon.
Madison,	25,144	Cazenovia, Hamilton, Peterborough.
Chenango,	21,702	Oxford, Norwich, Sherburne.
Broome,	8,129	Binghampton, Owego, Oghquago.
Tioga,	7,899	Newtown (in Elmira), Spencer.
Courtlandt,	8,793	Homer, Portwatson, Truxton.
Onondaga,	26,078	Manlius, Salina, Oswego, Skaneateles.
Cayuga,	29,840	Aburn, Aurora, Cayuga.
Seneca,	16,609	Ithaca, Ovid, Lancaster.
Steuben,	7,243	Bath, Ark-Port, Dansville.
Ontario,	42,026	Canandaigua, Geneva, Lyons, Palmyra.
Genesee,	12,644	Batavia, Le Roy, Charlotte.
Allegany,	1,942	Angelica.
Cattaraugus,	458	New Hamilton (in the town of Olean.)
Niagara,	6,132	Buffaloe, Lewiston, Black-Rock.
Chautaughque,	2,381	Mayville, Canadaway.

CAPES.... These are Sandy-Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river and Montauk Point, at the east end of Long-Island. On an island at the extremity of the latter, the United States have erected a light-house, which is sometimes seen at Rhode Island. Cumberland-Head is a point or promontory running into Lake Champlain, in Clinton county; as is also Point au Fer. Point Peninsula projects into Lake Ontario, in Jefferson county.

RIVERS.... Of these, *three* are of the first magnitude, viz. St. Lawrence, Niagara, and Hudson's rivers. The two first have already been described. The St. Lawrence receives the waters of four considerable streams from this state, whose territory it washes for about 100 miles, in which it is from one to two miles wide. The *Hudson*, or *North* river, rises in the high country 60 or 70 miles west of Lake Champlain. It issues out of a lake 9 or 10 miles long, in Montgomery county, 3 or 4 miles from the southern boundary of St. Lawrence county. After running a southwardly course through the state, of 360 miles, it discharges itself into York bay. At its union with the bay stands the city of New-York. It furnishes good navigation for the largest ships to Newburgh, 65 miles from New-York; for large vessels to Hudson, 65 miles higher; and for sloops of 80 or 90 tons burden to Troy, 36 miles further. Sloops of 40 or 50 tons, go up to Waterford, four miles higher; but the navigation in low water is difficult. During the spring, and great part of the summer, vast quantities of lumber descend this river, in rafts, from 40 or 50 miles above Glenn's Falls. Round this cataract there is a short portage. In the driest seasons it is frequently fordable even as low as Waterford. At this place it is 60 or 70 rods wide. At Troy it is nearly, half a mile wide; at Albany 7-8ths of a mile; at Hudson, more than a mile; at New-Windsor, two miles; and at Tappan Bay, five miles wide. It affords plenty of shad, herring, bass, sturgeon, and some other fish. The tide flows to Troy, which is 166 miles from the bay. The *Mohawk* river springs in the north-west part of the state, and, after running 140 miles through a most fertile country, joins the Hudson a few miles above the city of Albany. The

East River passes between New-York and Long-Island, uniting with the Sound in the north-east, and with the bay in the south-west. The *Genesee* river rises in the north part of Pennsylvania, and after running 20 miles, enters New-York and falls into Lake Ontario. Its whole course is about 130 miles. *Black* and *Oswego* rivers empty into Lake Ontario. The *Tioga* rises in Pennsylvania, passes about 70 miles in this state, and unites with the Susquehannah at New-Athens. The *Seneca* issues from the north end of Cayuga lake, and passes by a north-east course of 50 miles, into Oswego river. The *Allegany* (the main branch of the *Ohio*) rises in Pennsylvania, but soon passes into this state, in which it runs 50 miles, and then passes off south-westward to Pittsburgh. *Indian* river runs a course of 90 miles between Black and Oswegatchie rivers, and falls into Black lake. The *Oswegatchie*, *Grass*, *Rackett*, *St. Regis*, and *Salmon* rivers, fall into the St. Lawrence. *Chazy*, *Saranack*, and *Sable* rivers, discharge into lake Champlain. The *Unadilla* and *Chenango* fall in the Susquehannan. The *Connewango* runs 45 miles in this state, and enters the Allegany in Pennsylvania. Numerous creeks and smaller streams intersect the country in all directions. The sources of the *Delaware* and *Susquehannah* rivers are both in this state.

BAYS AND HARBOURS....These are—1st. In the ocean; Long Island sound, York bay, 9 miles long and 4 broad, Great, Great West, Gardiner's, Great Peconick, Drowned meadow, Rockaway, Jamaica, Jerusalem, Parsonage and Oyster bays, Cold Spring harbour and Hallet's cove, besides other smaller bays and harbours about Long Island.—2d. In Hudson's river; Tappan and Haverstaw bays.—3d. In lake Champlain; East, South, North-West, Cumberland and Peru bays.—4th. In lake George; North-West bay.—5th. In lake Ontario; Braddock's, Irondequot, (or Gerundegut,) Fishing, Great and Little Sodus, East, Port, Hungary, Chaumont and Chippeway bays.—And 6th. In lake Erie; Cattaraugus Creek harbour.

LAKES....Lake *Ontario* furnishes a coast of about 240 miles, and Lake *Erie*, one of about 75 miles, in this state. Lake *Champlain* divides New-York from the middle and north parts of Vermont. Lake *George*, a few miles west of lake Champlain, is 36 miles long, and from one to seven broad, containing from 200 to 300 small islands, and affording abundance of fish. It is surrounded with high mountains, and exhibits grand and picturesque views. Its waters are extremely clear, and afford navigation for large boats. Its surface is nearly 100 feet higher than that of lake Champlain, into which it empties by a short outlet. *Oneida* lake is about 30 miles long and 8 wide, abounding with fish, and affording sloop navigation. It discharges itself into the Oswego, by Orondaga (sometimes called Oneida) river. *Cayuga* lake is 40 miles long, and from one to 6 wide. It is navigable for large sloops. It is the source of Seneca river. The beautiful *Seneca* lake lies from 7 to 15 miles west of Cayuga. It is 47 feet higher, about the same length, but of a more uniform breadth of from 3 to 5 miles. Its waters are very transparent, and its shores delightful. It discharges by a considerable stream, called *Seneca outlet* into the north end of Cayuga lake. *Chautauque* lake, in the south-west corner of the state, is 20 miles long, and from 3 to 7 broad, and empties, by an outlet at its south-east end, into Connewango river, a branch of the Allegany. The north end of this lake, which is deep and navigable, is but 9 miles from lake Erie. *Crooked Lake*, a few miles west of Seneca lake, into which it empties, is about 22 miles

long and 3 or 4 broad. *Canandaigua* lake is 21 miles long and 3 wide, and empties into Seneca river by Canandaigua river or outlet. Its waters are clear and its scenery beautiful. *Black Lake*, near the river St. Lawrence, is about 18 miles long and 5 or 6 broad, and contains many islands. The beautiful *Skaneateles* and *Owasco* lakes, are each about 16 miles long, and from 1 to 5 broad, and each discharges its waters by large outlets into Seneca river. Both afford plenty of fish. *Schroon* lake, west of lake George, is 12 or 15 miles long and 2 broad. *Otsego* lake, the head of Susquehannah river, is 9 miles long and from 1 to 4 broad. Besides these, there is yet a number of lakes, from 3 to 10 miles long, and from 1 to 5 broad, (and some even larger;) many of which have not been particularly explored, or even named.

ISLANDS.... Staten Island lies 9 miles to the south-west of the city of New-York, close on the shore of New-Jersey, and is 18 miles long by about 7 broad. It contains about 5,400 inhabitants. It is separated from New Jersey on the north and west by Newark bay, and from Long Island on the east, by the Narrows. It forms Richmond county. The south part of the island is level, good land; but much of the other parts are rough and hilly. The seat of justice is Richmond, a small village, but largest on the island. Long Island, which lies off Connecticut and New-York, being separated from them by the Sound and the East river, is about 140 miles long, by a medial breadth of 10 miles. It contains three counties, and a number of handsome villages, with about 50,000 inhabitants. Though the soil is generally light and sandy, the island is in a very advanced state of improvement. On this island is an extensive plain, called Hempstead, which is 15 miles long and about 7 or 8 broad. It affords a very useful common for horses, sheep and cattle. A ridge of hills, not very high, runs nearly through the whole island lengthwise, nearest to the north side. Great quantities of wood are carried from the middle parts; and the bay and harbours afford oysters, clams, and bass, in the greatest abundance, while on the land there are some excellent hunting grounds. The eastern part of the island is divided into Montauk and Oyster Pond points by a long bay, which, at its head, receives Peconick river. There are 3 or 4 more small rivers or creeks on the island, the chief of which is called Connecticut river. Suffolk is the most eastern of the three counties. To it belongs *Fisher's* island, 20 miles long and 2 broad, the most easterly part of the state—also Gardner's island, or isle of Wight; Shelter, Robin's, Plumb, Ram, Gull, and Great and Little Hog-neck islands; and the Fire islands, and some smaller ones in South bay. To Queen's, which is the centre county, belongs Hog island and some others in the sound; and to King's, which is the western, Barren, Coney, and other small islands in the ocean. The climate is very mild and agreeable, and this island is justly esteemed one of the healthiest spots in the union. It was first settled by the Dutch about the year 1639. Some small islands in the sound belong to the county of West-Chester, on the main land. On this island was fought the first field battle between the American army under general Washington, and the British forces under general Howe.

York or Manhattan Island is separated from New-Jersey by Hudson's river, from the continental part of the state by Haerlem river, and from Long Island by East river. Its south end is washed by York bay, and its northern extremity is connected to the main land by

Kingsbridge. It is 16 miles long and nearly 2 miles wide, though in the narrowest part only $\frac{1}{4}$ th of a mile. With Governor's, Bedlow's, and Ellis's islands in York bay, and Blackwell's, Pursell's, and Great and Little Barn, and other small islands, in East river, it forms the city and county of New-York. It is highly cultivated, and affords many picturesque views of the East and North rivers, and the country adjacent.

Grand Island, in Niagara river, is 12 miles long and 8 broad. The state has purchased the soil of the Indians, but it is not yet much settled. It is in Niagara county. **Navy Island,** which is small, lies just below in the same river and county. **Wolf, or Grand Isle,** in lake Ontario, is 20 miles long, and from 4 to 10 broad. There are also, near it, Grenadier's, Stoney, Carlton, Galew, Gimelin, and most of the *Thousand islands*, belonging to this state. They are chiefly in the territory of Jefferson county.

MOUNTAINS....The chief, and only considerable mountains in this state, are the *Shawangunk* and the *Cattskill* or Blue mountains. The latter are much the higher of the two, being the highest point of the Allegany range, except the White mountains in New-Hampshire. The two highest points are the Round Top and the High Peak, both in Greene county. The top of the latter is 3718 feet above the level of the tide in Hudson's river, and 3019 above its own base—the former 3115 feet above its base, and 3804 above tide water: being 548 feet *higher* than Monadnock mountain in New-Hampshire; but 120 *lower* than Killington Peak in Vermont, 616 *higher* than the highest part of the Allegany in Virginia, and 2796 *lower* than Mount Washington in New-Hampshire. The highest points of the Cattskill are from 15 to 25 miles west of the Hudson.

MINERALOGY....There are inexhaustible mines of *iron ore* in Rockland, Orange, Essex, and Clinton counties; and great quantities in the counties of Ulster, Columbia, Greene, Sullivan, Washington, Oneida, and Lewis, and in some other parts of the state. *Silver* has been found in several places, particularly at Philipsburg in West-Chester county. *Lead* is found in Herkimer and Columbia counties. *Marble* of an excellent quality has been found in Washington and Dutchess counties. *Slate*, of the best quality, abounds at Hosick, in Rensselaer county; and there are quarries of it all along Hudson's river. *Sulphur* is found in Montgomery, Ontario, and Genesee counties; and *Lime-stone* is abundantly distributed over almost every part of the state. *Coal* has been found on the banks of the Susquehannah. There are also strong indications of the existence of this valuable mineral in Columbia and in several parts of the western counties. *Gypsum, or Plaster of Paris*, has been found in great abundance, and of excellent quality, in Onondaga and Madison counties. But the most conveniently situated, and richest body of this article, lies in Cayuga county, on the east shore of Cayuga lake; where it is thrown directly from its native bed, into boats or sloops, and carried to Ithaca, at the south end of the lake. Thence it is conveyed to the Susquehannah, and down that river to the Chesapeake bay, supplying all the intermediate country. In the contrary direction, it is sent through lake Ontario, down the St. Lawrence. *Clay* of various kinds is found in almost every county. *Silecious sand, Sand-stone, Black flint*, a variety of *Ochres*, of different colours, *Alum, Mica*, and some specimens of *Molybdena, Amianthus*, and *Serpentine*, are found in different parts of the state. Likewise *Spar*,

Zinc, Pyrites of iron, Magnesia, Talc, several kinds of Copper and Tin ore, various kinds of chrystals, asbestos, and a variety of marine shells, &c. The *Esofus* and *Burr Mill-stones* of this state, are well known. *Plumbago* is found in great abundance in Essex and Clinton counties, and *Emery*, near lake George.

MINERAL WATERS....In the county of Saratoga are situated the celebrated mineral springs, whose waters excel those of any other country in the richness and variety of their medicinal qualities. There are two clusters of these springs; one called the *Ballston* and the other the *Saratoga* springs. The former are situated 26 miles north of Albany, 8 south of Saratoga springs, and about 12 west of Hudson river. The water is clear and limpid; its temperature in summer is from 50° to 58° of Fahrenheit. It contains great quantities of *carbonick acid gas*, by the discharge of which most of the springs are kept continually bubbling. For drinking and bathing it is found efficacious in various chronic and cutaneous diseases; in intermittent fevers, worms, dysentery, &c. *High rock* spring, at Saratoga is a great curiosity. It is entirely surrounded by, or rather issues out of, a rock, of a conical shape, five or six feet high, and nine feet diameter at its base. The rock is of a cretaceous or calcareous nature, and seems to have been formed from the water by incrustation. It has a circular hole in its apex, about ten inches diameter. This is the opening to its inner cavity, which widens downwards. A crack in one side of this rock forms an outlet for the water beneath the surface of the earth, and the spring has not for many years been known to overflow at top, as, at intervals, it formerly used to do. The water is much used.

For many years the resort of persons from the different states, to these celebrated waters, has been very great, both for health and pleasure.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE....This state, lying to the south of New-England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all constitutions. The face of the country is low, flat, and marshy towards the sea. As you recede from the coast, the eye is entertained with the gradual swelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The soil is considerably diversified. The east end of Long Island is dry, sandy, and barren; the west end of a deeper and richer soil. From New-York to Albany, and along the Delaware, the soil is mostly dry and gravelly, but produces good crops of grain, grass, and fruit, and affords fine grazing for cattle. At, and above Albany, the soil has in it more clay, and is still better for wheat. Between lakes George and Champlain, and the river St. Lawrence, there is perhaps more indifferent soil, although the whole country is good grazing land. On the Mohawk and Susquehannah the soil is still better than on the Hudson, and produces abundant crops of grain, especially wheat. From Utica westward to lake Erie, and north-west to the head of the St. Lawrence, the country is in general very level; the soil is either a dark, rich mould, or a soft and light loam, and almost entirely free from stone; and the usual crops of grain and grass (particularly of wheat, flax, and Indian corn) exceed those of most countries in the world. The strength of the soil is such, especially in the Genesee and Black river countries, that it produces abundant crops of hemp without any apparent injury to the land.

Fruit of almost all kinds is raised throughout this state. The western part is peculiarly productive of peaches. Hickory-nuts, butter-nuts, cherries, grapes, whortle-berries, and other wild fruit, are plenty. Some of the finest neat cattle in the world, are raised in the Genesee country; and vast quantities of beef, pork, butter, and cheese, are produced for exportation. There are also raised considerable quantities of buckwheat, rye, oats, barley, peas, beans, potatoes, and all kinds of garden fruit and vegetables. Much pot and pearl ashes are annually made, and some business is carried on in the fur trade. But wheat is still the staple. In the article timber this state is not behind any country. Besides maple, walnut, hickory, oak, butter-nut, elm, beach, ash, and some chesnut, it affords great quantities of white pine and spruce. On the banks of the Susquehannah grows some of the finest timber for ship-building in the world. From the sugar maple is made great abundance of sugar for domestic use.

ANIMALS....In the northern and unsettled parts of this state there are moose, deer, bears, beavers, martins, foxes, racoons, rabbits, and most of the other inhabitants of the forest. Wolves, bears, and wild cats, particularly the former, have, till lately, been very troublesome in the new settlements; but these animals are daily decreasing. The domestic animals are the same in general as in the other states. The number of horses in this state in 1810, was estimated at 325,000—neat cattle, 885,000—and sheep, 1,250,000.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....The number of inhabitants in 1790, were 340,120, including 11,324 slaves, and in 1800, they had increased to 586,203, including 20,000 slaves. Since the close of the revolutionary war this state has increased amazingly, owing to an extraordinary emigration from Europe and the Eastern states. Between that period, and the year 1800 (about 17 years) the number of inhabitants was doubled. The population in 1756, was 96,775; in 1771, it was 163,338; in 1786, 238,896; and in 1810, 960,000, of whom 15,017 were slaves, making an increase in the last ten years of 374,000. The census of 1810 is generally understood to be at least 15,000 short of the actual amount, some errors having happened in the enumeration and returns of several counties. The militia of the state in 1812, was estimated at 98,606.

CITIES....In the state of New-York are many flourishing towns. The three principal, which are incorporated and called cities, are New-York, Albany, and Hudson, all of them situated on the Hudson or North river. New-York was founded by the Dutch about the year 1615, and was then called New-Amsterdam. It is happily situated for trade at the head of the bay, and the confluence of the North and East rivers, having an extensive front on each. The inhabitants of the city and county are estimated at 96,373. The streets are narrow and irregular, except Broadway, Wall street, and two or three more. The principal buildings are the City Hall, an elegant edifice, once the seat of Congress, but now appropriated to the service of the courts of justice; the government house; the Tontine coffee house, a theatre, jail, 35 houses of religious worship, some of them large and splendid; and a state prison, or penitentiary house, distant about two miles from the city. The next is Albany, which is 160 miles above New-York. This city was founded also by the Dutch, nearly as soon as New York, and was incorporated by governor Dougan, in 1686. It is now the seat of the state government, and contains about

9400 inhabitants, who are a motley mixture of many nations, but principally of Dutch descent. The houses were at first mostly built on the margin of the river, in the old Dutch style, with the gable ends facing the streets. The principal part of the city at present extends back from the river, and the houses are generally finished in the modern style. The wells of the city contain no good water, and the inhabitants make use of that from the river. The principal public buildings are a state house, city hall, hospital, and nine or ten places of religious worship. It is well situated for trade, being the staple of an extensive and flourishing country. But Albany is strongly rivalled, by the new city of Hudson, which is situated about 30 miles lower down the river. This has been distinguished as one of the most thriving commercial towns in the United States. The first house was built in 1784, and in 1800, the city contained 3664 inhabitants. The river is nearly a mile wide opposite the town, and may be navigated by the largest merchant vessels. The advantageous situation, joined to a spirit of industry and enterprise in the people, can hardly fail to render this city in the course of a few years rich and important. The present population is upwards of 4000. The other considerable towns are Brooklyn, opposite New-York, Schenectady on the Mohawk, Utica, on the same river, Poughkepsie, Troy and Lansingburg on the Hudson.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES....The situation of New-York, with respect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the states. It has at all seasons of the year a short and easy access to the ocean. It commands the trade of a great proportion of the best settled and best cultivated parts of the United States. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the same with those which the New-Englanders use; and these are spread over all the commercial parts of the globe. They used to take almost the same sort of commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boston. At an average of three years, their exports were said to amount to 526,000*l.* and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000*l.* The exports from this state in 1791, amounted to 2,505,465 dollars; in 1795, to 10,304,580 dollars; in 1802, to 13,792,276 dollars; in 1807, to 26,357,963 dollars; and in 1810, to 17,242,230 dollars.

The city of New-York contains a great number of people who are employed in the various branches of manufactures, viz. wheel carriages of all kinds, loaf sugar, bread, beer, shoes and boots, saddlery, cabinet-work, cutlery, hats, clocks, watches, mathematical and musical instruments, ships, and every thing necessary for their equipment. A glass work and several iron works have been established.

GOVERNMENT....By the constitution of the state of New-York, established in 1777, and revised in 1801, the supreme legislative power is vested in two separate and distinct bodies of men: the one called "The Assembly of the State of New-York," consisting of seventy members annually chosen by ballot; and the other, "The Senate of the State of New-York," consisting of twenty-four, for four years, with an annual rotation of one-fourth. These together form the legislature, and meet once at least in every year for the dispatch of business. The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, who continues in office three years, assisted by a council of revision in the ratification of laws; and a council of appointment, in appointing to offices. Every male inhabitant of full age, who possesses a

freehold of the value of fifty dollars, or has rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty shillings, and been rated and paid taxes to the state for six months preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for members of the assembly; but those who vote for the governor, and the members of the senate, are to be possessed of freeholds of the value of two hundred and fifty dollars. The judges, council of appointment, &c. are to be chosen by ballot of the senate and assembly.

RELIGION....It is ordained by the constitution of New-York, that the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship, without discrimination or preference, shall for ever be allowed within that state to all mankind. The English Presbyterian and the Dutch Reformed churches embrace two-thirds of the inhabitants.

COLLEGES....A college was erected at New-York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755, and received the appellation of King's College. It was incorporated by a royal charter, and was very liberally endowed by grants from the provincial assembly, as well as by private contributions. The faculty consists of a president, and professors of the sciences and learned languages. It has since been denominated Columbia College. It has about one hundred and forty students in the four classes, besides medical students.

A college, called Union College, was established at Schenectady in 1794, which has now about forty students in the four classes. Besides these there are dispersed in different parts of the state upwards of forty incorporated academies, containing in the whole as many as six or seven hundred students. It is also provided that schools shall be established, one at least in every district of four square miles; the legislature having appointed a literary society, whose business is to superintend education, and to establish seminaries, wherever they may be useful within the state.

HISTORY....The Swedes and Dutch were the first Europeans who formed settlements on this part of the American coast. The tract claimed by the two nations extended from the 38th to the 41st degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II, who obtained it from them by right of conquest in 1664; and it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in the British possession before they were divided into different provinces. New-York took that name from the king's brother, James duke of York, to whom the king granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent dated March 20, 1664. On James's accession to the throne, the right to New-York became vested in the crown, and it became a royal government. The king appointed the governor and council; and the people once in seven years elected their representatives to serve in general assemblies. These three branches of the legislature (answering to those of Great Britain) had power to make any laws not repugnant to those of England: but, in order to their being valid, the royal assent to them was first to be obtained.

In 1763, a dispute originated between New-York and New-Hampshire, respecting the title to the New-Hampshire grants, now the state of Vermont. This was followed by a series of confusion and riots which impeded the settlement of the country for many years, and was not terminated till the inhabitants wisely renounced subjection to both, and declared themselves an independent state.

NEW-JERSEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length	160	} between	{ 39° and 41° 24' North latitude.	} 8,320
Breadth	50		{ 74° 44' and 75° 33' West longitude.	

BOUNDARIES....New-Jersey is bounded on the west and south-west by Delaware river and bay, which separates it from the states of Pennsylvania and Delaware; on the south-east and east, by the Atlantic Ocean, the Sound, which separates Staten Island from the continent, and Hudson's river; and on the north, by Raritan bay and the state of New-York.

DIVISIONS....This state is divided into 13 counties and 116 towns.

Counties.	Population 1810.	Chief Towns.
Middlesex,	20,381	Perth Amboy, New-Brunswick.
Monmouth,	22,150	Shrewsbury, Freehold.
Essex,	25,984	Newark, Elizabethtown.
Somerset,	14,728	Boundbrook.
Bergen,	16,603	Hackinsac.
Burlington,	24,979	Burlington, Bordenton.
Gloucester,	19,744	Woodbury, Gloucester.
Salem,	12,761	Salem.
Cumberland,	13,670	Hopewell, Bridgeport.
Cape May,	3,632	
Hunterdon,	24,553	TRENTON, { 40° 15' N. latitude.
Morris,	21,828	{ 74° 15' W. long.
Sussex,	25,549	Morristown.
		Newton.
245,562		

RIVERS....These are the Delaware, Raritan, Passaic, Hackinsac, Great Egg Harbour, Maurice, and Musconecunk. A number of smaller streams flow into the Delaware. On the Passaic is a remarkable cataract: the height of the rock from which the water falls is 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there upwards of 50 yards broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE....The climate is much the same with that of New-York; the soil is various; at least one-fourth part of the state is barren sandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

METALS, MINERALS....In this state are several iron mines, and in Bergen county is a very valuable copper mine.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....The number of inhabitants in New-Jersey, in 1790, was 184,139, of whom 11,423 were slaves; in 1801 they amounted to 211,149, including 12,422 slaves; and in 1810, to 245,562, of whom 10,851 were slaves. The militia is stated at 37,000.

CHIEF TOWNS....Trenton is the metropolis, and the largest town in this state; here the legislature statedly meets, the supreme court sits, and most of the public offices are kept. It contains between three and four hundred houses, and about 3000 inhabitants.

Perth Amboy, and Burlington, were formerly the seats of government: the governor generally resided in the latter, which is pleasantly situate on the river Delaware, about twenty miles from Philadelphia. The town was laid out as early as the year 1677, five years before William Penn commenced the building of Philadelphia. The former is as good a port as most on the continent, and the harbour is safe, and capacious enough to contain many large ships. The other principal towns are Newark, containing 8000 inhabitants; New-Brunswick, 6000; Elizabethtown, 3000; Princeton, Swedesborough, and Salem.

TRADE, MANUFACTURES....The trade of this state is carried on almost solely with and from those two great commercial cities, New-York on one side, and Philadelphia on the other, though it wants not good ports of its own. The amount of exports from the ports of New-Jersey was, in 1810, 430,267 dollars. Manufactures here have hitherto been inconsiderable, if we except the articles of iron, nails, and leather. The iron manufacture is, of all others, the greatest source of wealth to the state. In Morris county alone are no less than seven rich iron mines. In the whole state it is supposed there is yearly made about 1200 tons of bar iron, and as many of pig iron, exclusive of hollow ware and various other castings, of which vast quantities are made.

GOVERNMENT...By the Charter of Rights, established by the provincial congress, July 2, 1776, the government of New-Jersey is vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly. The members of the legislative council are to be freeholders, and worth at least one thousand pounds real and personal estate; and the members of the general assembly to be worth five hundred pounds. All the inhabitants worth fifty pounds are entitled to vote for representatives in council and assembly, and for all other public officers; and until very lately, single women possessed of fifty pounds, voted at elections. The elections of the governor, legislative council, and general assembly, are to be annual; the governor is chosen by the assembly and council. The judges of the supreme court are chosen for seven years, and inferior judges for five years.

RELIGION....According to the present constitution of this state, all persons are allowed to worship God in the manner that is most agreeable to their own consciences; nor is any person obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpose of building or repairing any church or churches, for the maintenance of any minister or ministry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately or voluntarily engaged himself to perform. There is to be no establishment of any one religious sect in this state in preference to another: and no protestant inhabitants are to be denied the enjoyment

of any civil right, merely on account of their religious principles. The most numerous religious societies are the Friends and Presbyterians.

COLLEGES....A college, called Nassau Hall, was established at the town of Princeton, in this province, by governor Belcher, in 1746, which has a power of conferring the same degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There are generally between eighty and a hundred students here, who come from all parts of the continent, some even from the extremities of it. There is another college at Brunswick, called Queen's College, founded a little before the revolution, and in considerable repute. There are also several academies.

HISTORY....New-Jersey is part of that vast tract of land which, we have observed, was given by king Charles II, to his brother James, duke of York; he sold it, for a valuable consideration, to lord Berkeley and sir George Cartaret (from which it received its present name, because sir George had estates in the island of Jersey) and they again to others, who, in the year 1702, made a surrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which she accepted; after which it became a royal government, and remained under the British dominion until 1774.

PENNSYLVANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 290	} between	{ 74° 30' and 80° 25' West longitude. 39° 44' and 42° North latitude.	} 46,000
Breadth 156			

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by New-York and Lake Erie, on the north; by Delaware river, which divides it from New-Jersey, on the east; by a part of Virginia, and by Maryland and Delaware, on the south; and by the state of Ohio, and a part of Virginia, on the west. It contains 23,278,806 acres of land.

DIVISIONS....The state of Pennsylvania contains fifty counties.

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Philadelphia,	111,210	Philadelphia, { N. lat. 40°. W. long. 75° 20'.
Chester,	39,596	West Chester.
Bucks,	32,371	Newton.
Berks,	43,146	Reading.
Northampton,	38,145	Easton.
Lancaster,	53,927	Lancaster.
York,	31,958	York.
Cumberland,	26,757	Carlisle.
Montgomery,	29,703	Norristown.
Dauphin,	31,883	Harrisburg.
Luzerne,	18,109	Wilksbarre.
Northumberland,	36,327	Sunbury
Franklin,	23,083	Chambersburg.
Huntingdon,	14,778	Huntingdon.
Westmoreland,	26,392	Greensburg.
Fayette,	24,714	Union.
Washington,	36,289	Washington.
Allegheny,	25,317	Pittsburg.
Delaware,	14,734	Chester.
Mifflin,	12,132	Lewistown.
Bedford,	15,746	Bedford.
Somerset,	11,284	Somerset.
Lycoming,	11,006	Williamsport.
Green,	12,544	Wayneborough.
Beaver,	12,168	Beaver.
Butler,	7,346	Butler.
Mercer,	8,277	Mercer.
Venango,	3,066	Franklin.
Erie,	3,758	Erie.

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Warren,	827	Warren.
Adams,	15,152	Gettysburgh.
Wayne,	4,125	Bethany.
Centre,	10,681	Bellefont.
Armstrong,	6,143	Kittanning.
Crawford,	6,178	Meadville.
Cambria,	2,117	Ebensburg.
Tioga,	1,687	Wellsborough.
Jefferson,	161	Jefferson.
M'Kean,	142	Smethport.
Clearfield,	875	Clearfield.
Potter,	29	Coudersport.
Indiana,	6,214	Indiana.

 810,091

Bradford,	Athens.
Susquehanna,	Mont Rose.
Schuylkill,	Orwicksburg.
Lehigh,	Allenstown.
Lebanon,	Lebanon.
Union,	Longstown.
Columbia,	
Pike,*	

RIVERS... The Delaware separates this state from New-Jersey. The western branch of this river, which is called the *Lehigh*, rises principally in the mountains of Luzerne and Northampton counties. After meandering through the Broad and Blue mountains, it enters a rich and more level country, and passing by Allentown and Bethlehem, joins the Delaware at Easton. Some of the branches of this river are separated from others of the Susquehannah by a short distance; and nothing is wanted but a degree of public spirit, to open an easy communication between the extensive country irrigated by the latter, and the city of Philadelphia. For this purpose a turnpike has lately been formed. *Schuylkill*, which rises in Berks and Dauphin counties, mingles its waters with the Delaware, about five miles below Philadelphia. The tide flows in the former but five miles above the city, but it is navigated by boats and setting poles, seventy miles higher.

The *Susquehannah* is formed by two considerable streams, which unite at the town of Northumberland, about 120 miles north-west from the metropolis. The East branch rises in the state of New-York; and, after winding in a western direction along the border of that state, enters Pennsylvania in the latitude of 42° north. The West branch has its principal springs in Clearfield county. After the union of the two branches, the river flows in a southern direction through Pennsylvania to Maryland, and after running a few miles in that state, falls into the bay of Chesapeake, not far from Havre-de-Grace. Although the length of this river is about 250 miles, the tide rises in it but a short distance, owing to a number of considerable rocks, which render the navigation unsafe at all times, ex-

* These last eight counties have been formed since the census of 1810, and their population is included in that of the others.

cept when the waters are swelled by freshes. A fine bridge has been lately erected over this river at Columbia, and another at M-Call's Ferry in Lancaster county, and others are constructing at Harrisburg and Sunbury.

The *Juniata*, which is a branch of the Susquehannah, rises in Huntingdon and Bedford counties, and after passing through a mountainous country, joins the latter river about twelve miles above Harrisburg.

On the western side of the Allegany mountains, flows the *Ohio*, which is formed by the united waters of the *Allegany* and *Monongahela*. The former rises principally in the state of New-York, and, after meandering near the southern boundary of that state, enters Warren county, in Pennsylvania, and pursues a southern course to its junction at the borough of Pittsburg. This river is navigable about 200 miles by canoes, and approaches in some of its ramifications, near the west branch of the Susquehannah. The *Monongahela* has its chief sources in the Laurel mountain, and flowing northward, joins the *Allegany* at Pittsburg, as above stated. The streams of Pennsylvania that fall into lake Erie are generally small.

LAKES....The interior lakes of this state are few and inconsiderable; the largest is lake Conniott, in Crawford county, at no great distance from lake Erie, and situated in the centre of a fertile country. One of the exterior counties of this state borders for about 50 miles on the south-west shore of lake Erie; and there is a considerable trade, especially in salt, carried on through this medium, with the state of New-York.

MOUNTAINS....The first considerable chain of mountains that presents itself, to a person travelling westward from Philadelphia, is the South mountain, traversing the state, not in one continued range, but in broken, detached elevations. From ten to thirty miles further westward, rises the Kittanning or Endless mountain, so called from its enormous length. This stretches in long uniform ridges, rising scarcely any where half a mile perpendicular above the subjacent vales. The largest and most extensive elevation in Pennsylvania, or in any of the United States, is the *Allegany* or *Apalachian* mountain. Between this ridge and the *Ohio* are several inferior ridges, as Laurel hill, Chesnut ridge, &c.

METALS, MINERALS....Iron ore abounds in this state; and copper and lead are found in some places. Lime-stone is common, as also several kinds of marble; and in the middle and western parts of the country there is abundance of coal. Slate of an excellent quality has also been recently discovered.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE....The face of the country, air, soil, and produce, do not materially differ from those of New-York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this state. The air is sweet and clear. The winters continue from December until March, and are so cold and severe, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. Many days in July and August, are almost intolerably hot; but the country is refreshed by frequent cool breezes. It may be remarked, in general, that in all parts of the United States, from New-York to the southern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four species, all different from those of Europe. But, whether from some fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the soil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet

produced no wine that deserves to be mentioned. It may also be observed of the timber of these states, that towards the south it is not so good for shipping as that of the more northern countries. The farther southward you go, the timber becomes less compact, and rives easily; which property, as it renders it less serviceable for ships, makes it more useful for staves.

Pennsylvania produces all the various kinds of grain common to the neighbouring states; but wheat is the principal, and of most general cultivation. This state excels in the skill and industry of its farmers.

ANIMALS....Deer and beavers are scarce in Pennsylvania; others, racoons, and martens, are more plentiful. Buffaloes rarely cross the Ohio, and elks seldom advance from the north. Wild cats, bears, foxes, and wolves, are not rare; the last do most mischief, especially in the winter; but the fur and skins of all are valuable. In the thick settlements, rabbits and squirrels are frequent; also musk-rats in marshes. Partridges are yet numerous, though hard winters and sportsmen united have destroyed many. There are numbers of wild turkeys in the new settlements; pheasants and grouse are become scarce. Pigeons, ducks, and wild geese, are generally found in plenty in their proper seasons. Here are a great number of singing birds, as many migrate to this state from the north and south in certain seasons. All the useful domestic animals are in great plenty, and many of them excellent of their kinds.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....Notwithstanding the many physical and political advantages this portion of the United States has always possessed, and notwithstanding the extraordinary influx of foreigners, the inhabitants have not increased as rapidly since, as they did before the American revolution. According to authentic documents there were 434,373 inhabitants in 1790, and 602,545 in 1800, which affords a duplication in 26 years. But by the Journals of the general assembly, and the provincial assessments in 1731, the taxables did not exceed 10,000, and in 1751, the space of twenty years, they amounted to 21,000, and in 1771, they had risen to between 39 and 40,000. The population of this state, according to the census of 1810, amounted to 810,091. The number of taxable inhabitants was, in 1814, 165,422. There are but few slaves in the state: at the last enumeration there were but 795. The militia has been computed at near 100,000 men, although they are not all furnished with arms, nor completely disciplined.

ORIGIN AND CHARACTER OF THE INHABITANTS....The inhabitants of Pennsylvania are principally the descendants of English, Irish, and Germans, with some Scotch, Welch, Swedes, and a few Dutch. There are also many of the Irish and Germans, who emigrated when young or middle-aged. The Friends and Episcopalians are chiefly of English extraction, and compose about one-third of the inhabitants. They live chiefly in the metropolis, and in the counties of Chester, Philadelphia, Bucks, and Montgomery. The Irish are mostly Presbyterians, but some are Roman-catholics. The Germans compose about one quarter of the inhabitants of Pennsylvania. They consist of Lutherans, who are the most numerous sect; Calvinists, or Reformed Church; Moravians, Roman-catholics, Menonists, Tunkers, and Swenkfelders. These are all distinguished for their temperance, industry, and economy. The Baptists, except the Menonists and Tunker Baptists, are chiefly descended of emigrants from Wales,

and are not very numerous. A proportionate assemblage of the national prejudices, the manners, customs, religions, and political sentiments of all these will form the Pennsylvanian character. But the general harmony has not been disturbed by national prejudices, or the diversity of religious opinions. The fiend of political discord has done more in this, as well as every other state, to destroy peace and amity among the people, than any other cause whatever.

CHIEF TOWNS....Pennsylvania contains several very considerable towns, such as Lancaster, Carlisle, and Pittsburgh. But the city of Philadelphia, which is beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe, eclipses the rest, and merits particular attention. It was built after the plan of the famous William Penn, the founder and legislator of this colony. It is situate about 120 miles from the sea, by the course of the bay and river; and 55 or 60 in the south-eastward direction. The ground-plot of the city is an oblong square, about one mile from north to south, and two from east to west; lying in the narrowest part of the isthmus, between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, about five miles in a right line above their confluence. The city is intersected by a great number of streets crossing each other at right angles. Of these there were originally nine, extending from the Delaware to the Schuylkill, which were crossed by twenty-three others running north and south. The number of squares formed by these streets, in the original plan, was 184; but as several of them have lately been intersected by new streets, their number now amounts to 304; and several of these are again intersected by lanes and alleys. Market-street is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole length of the city, from river to river. Near the middle it is intersected by Broad-street, which is 113 feet wide, and runs nearly north and south. The other streets are 50 feet wide, except Arch-street, which is 66 feet. Most of the city is well paved with foot-paths of brick, furnished with common sewers and gutters, so that the streets are in general kept very clean and neat. The houses in the city and suburbs are generally of brick, three stories high, in a plain decent style, without much display of ornament. In 1806, there were near 15,000, and in 1813, near 23,000 houses in the city and liberties, and the present number of inhabitants is estimated at about 90,000. Philadelphia contains more than 50 places of public worship, belonging to different sects. The state-house is a magnificent building, erected in 1735. In 1787, an elegant court-house, or town-hall, was built on the left of the state-house, and on the right, a county court-house. Here likewise is a public hospital, dispensary, and several other public buildings. This city is governed by a mayor, recorder, fifteen aldermen, and a select and common council, according to its present charter, granted in the year 1789. A malignant fever raged here in 1793, which in the course of August and three succeeding months carried off 4031 of the inhabitants. Happily the city has been free from this dreadful visitation for several years.

Lancaster, the chief town of Lancaster county, is the largest inland town in the United States: it contains about 7 or 800 houses, and 5000 inhabitants. Harrisburg, on the Susquehannah, in Dauphin county, is a handsome and thriving town, and is the present seat of the state government. Carlisle contains about 600 houses, and 2500 inhabitants. York, Reading, and Pittsburgh, are all flourishing towns, in Pennsylvania.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES....The commerce of Pennsylvania is very flourishing. It is principally carried on from Philadelphia; and there are few commercial ports in the world where ships from Philadelphia may not be found in some season of the year. The number of vessels which entered this port in 1786, was 1910, and, in 1795, 1620. The clearances in the latter year were 1789. The number of arrivals in 1804, was 1799; of clearances, 1764. In 1807, the arrivals were 1969; clearances, 1943. In 1810, the arrivals were 1198; clearances 1111. Many of these were coasting vessels. The number of vessels built in 1795, was 31, of which 23 were ships and brigs. In the year 1792, Philadelphia shipped 420,000 barrels of flour and middlings. The value of exports from the state of Pennsylvania in the year ending September 30, 1791, was 3,436,092 dollars; and, in 1795, 11,518,260 dollars. The exports from Philadelphia in 1796, amounted to 17,520,000 dollars. In 1810, they amounted to 10,993,398.

Although Pennsylvania has not advanced so far in manufactures as the more populous states of New-England, yet she may boast of many considerable establishments that manifest great proofs of public spirit, industry, and enterprise. The manufactures of flour, nails, wool and cotton cards, hats, hosiery, beer and porter, snuff, tobacco, paper and paper hangings, printed cottons and linens, boots, shoes, cabinet wares and carriages of pleasure, are prosecuted to a considerable amount, and form a respectable portion of her exports. In 1802, there were 28 furnaces, making annually 21,000 tons of pigs and castings; 72 forges, making 12,960 tons of bar iron; 11 slitting mills, making 27,750 tons of plate iron, &c. 12 tilting hammers, and 2 steel furnaces. In 1810, there were in Pennsylvania, 64 cotton factories, 213 fulling mills, 80 forges, 18 rolling and slitting mills, 175 naileries, 115 gun manufactories, 3 shot factories, 715 tanneries, 3,594 distilleries, distilling annually 6,552,284 gallons; 48 breweries, 24 bark mills, 11 sugar refineries, 70 paper mills, 8 glass houses, 70 tobacco mills, 170 potteries, 22 powder mills, making annually 280,866 pounds of powder, and 2,008 grist mills, making 844,417 barrels annually; besides various other manufacturing establishments.

GOVERNMENT....According to the present constitution, the legislative power is administered by a senate and house of representatives; the executive by a governor; and the judiciary by a supreme court, a court of common-pleas, and a court of quarter sessions of the peace. The legislature and governor are elected by the freemen; the governor for three years; the representatives annually, and the senate for four years, with an annual rotation of one fourth. The number of representatives must not be less than sixty, nor exceed one hundred; nor that of senators less than a fourth, nor greater than a third part of the number of representatives. The electors must have attained the age of twenty-one, have resided in the state two years, and paid taxes. The representatives must have been inhabitants of the state three years, and, the last year previous to their election, have resided in the county which chooses them. The qualifications of twenty-five years of age, and of four years residence, are required in senators: and the governor must have attained the age of thirty, and have resided in the state seven years; and he is not eligible more than nine years in twelve. The senators are divided

by lot into four classes; and the seats of one class vacated and re-filled yearly.

RELIGION....Liberty of conscience is allowed in this state in its fullest extent. A perfect equality in the enjoyment of rights and privileges, religious as well as civil, was a fundamental article in its first frame of government. Nor have these rights been abridged since the revolution, except by those laws that relate to military services, which subject Friends, Menonists, and some others, to heavy fines for non-attendance. The Presbyterians form the most numerous religious sect. The next in number are the German Lutherans and Calvinists, and the next the Friends or Quakers. The Methodists have lately become very numerous.

UNIVERSITY, COLLEGES...There is a university at Philadelphia, and colleges at Carlisle and Lancaster. The Episcopalians have an academy at York Town, in York county. There are also academies at Germantown, Pittsburg, Washington, West-chester, Allen's-town, and other places: some of these are endowed by donations from the legislature, and others by liberal contributions of individuals. The legislature have also reserved 60,000 acres of the public lands for public schools. The United Brethren, or Moravians, have academies at Bethlehem and Nazareth, on the best establishment of any schools perhaps in America. The literary, humane, and other useful societies, are more numerous and flourishing in Pennsylvania than in any of the other states. Among these are two which deserves a particular notice, which is the American Philosophical Society, held at Philadelphia, and a public Library the largest in the United States. The Philosophical Society was formed, January 2d, 1769, by the union of two other literary societies that had subsisted for some time, and were created one body corporate and politic, with such powers, privileges, and immunities, as are necessary for answering the valuable purpose which the society had originally in view, by a charter granted by the commonwealth of Pennsylvania on the 15th of March, 1780. This society has published several very valuable volumes of their Transactions. In 1771, it consisted of nearly 300 members, and many others have since been added; a large proportion of whom are foreigners. There is also an Academy of the fine Arts, which possesses some very valuable specimens of painting, as well as several busts and casts of some of the most celebrated statues of antiquity.

HISTORY....This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally possessed by the Dutch and Swedes. When these nations, however, were expelled by the English, admiral Penn, who in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the island of Jamaica (under the auspices of Cromwell) being in favour with Charles II, obtained a promise of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his son, the celebrated quaker, availed himself of this promise, and, after much court-solicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine Mr. Penn be little known but to those of his own persuasion, his reputation in the character of a legislator, is more generally known and esteemed. As soon as he published his proposals for colonising Pennsylvania, vast numbers of his brethren agreed to follow him into his new settlement, to avoid the persecutions to which the Quakers, like other dissenters, were then exposed; but it was to his justice, wisdom, and ability that the colonists were indebted for that charter of

privileges which placed the colony on so respectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in the utmost latitude, was laid down by that great man as the chief and only foundation of all his institutions. Christians of all denominations might not only live unmolested, but have a share in the government of the colony. No laws could be made but by the consent of the inhabitants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn subjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court constituted for that purpose. The disputes between individuals were not to be subjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wise and honest arbitrators. His benevolence and generosity extended also to the Indian nations; instead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchased of these people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and oldest right, was vested in them; and by adhering to the same just principles of conduct the society of Friends preserved a peace with the natives for more than 70 years. William Penn, in short, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his statue placed next to those of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the solid basis of equity, still maintain their force; and, as a proof of their effects, it is only necessary to mention, that land was lately granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four shillings reserved; whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted were at twenty pounds the thousand acres, with one shilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, before the commencement of the war with the mother country, land rented at twenty shillings the acre, and, even at several miles distance from that city, sold at twenty years purchase.

It was in Philadelphia that the general congress of America met in September 1774; and their meetings continued to be chiefly held there till the king's troops made themselves masters of that city, on the 26th of September 1777. But in June 1778 the British troops retreated to New-York, and Philadelphia again became the residence of the congress. Here they continued, excepting a short absence at New-York, till 1800, when the city of Washington, in the district of Columbia, was made the permanent seat of government.

DELAWARE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Length	92	between { 38° 29' and 39° 54' North latitude. 75° 9' and 75° 51' West longitude. }	2000
Breadth	34		

BOUNDARIES....Delaware is bounded on the east by the river and bay of the same name, and the Atlantic Ocean; on the north, by Pennsylvania; and on the south and west by Maryland. It is divided into the three following counties :

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Newcastle,	24,429	Newcastle, Wilmington:
Kent,	20,495	Dover.
Sussex,	27,750	Lewis.

These counties are subdivided into 24 hundreds.

RIVERS....In the southern and western parts of this state, spring the head-waters of Pocomoke, Wicomico, Nanticoke, Choptank, Chester, Sassafras, and Bohemia rivers, all falling into Chesapeake Bay. Some of them are navigable twenty or thirty miles into the country for vessels of fifty or sixty tons. Brandywine creek rises in Pennsylvania, enters this state in Newcastle county, and joins the Christiana about a mile below Wilmington. On this stream are situated those excellent merchant mills, which have given celebrity to the flour manufactured in this state. The Christiana rises in Pennsylvania, a little above the divisional line. It receives in its course Red and White Clay, and Mill creeks, flows by Newport, and passing Wilmington, is joined by the Brandywine, and empties into the Delaware about three miles below Wilmington. The channel is very crooked, though ships drawing 11 feet water can navigate it to Wilmington. Besides the above, the Appoquinimink, Duck, Jones, Murderkill, Broadkill, and Lewis creeks, discharge into the Delaware, affording great facility in the transportation of the produce of the country.

METALS, MINERALS....There are few minerals in this state, except iron : large quantities of bog iron ore, very fit for castings, are found in Sussex county, among the branches of Nanticoke river. On the Delaware, below Newcastle, large quantities of pure, ductile clay, are found ; which has, for many years, been carried almost throughout the continent. The glass houses at Pittsburg have been supplied with it, a long time, for their crucibles and other utensils.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE....The air is in general healthy; but in some parts, where there are large quantities of stagnant water, it is

less salubrious. The soil along the Delaware river, and from eight to ten miles into the interior country, is generally a rich clay, adapted to the various purposes of agriculture. From thence to the swamps the soil is light, sandy, and of an inferior quality. Wheat grows here in such perfection, as not only to be particularly sought by the manufacturers of flour throughout the union, but also to be distinguished and preferred for its superior qualities in foreign markets. Besides wheat, this state generally produces plentiful crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, oats, flax, buckwheat, and potatoes.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....The number of inhabitants in Delaware in 1790 was 59,094, of whom 887 were slaves: in 1801 they amounted to 64,273, including 6,153 slaves: and in 1810 to 72,674, including 4,177 slaves. In 1810 the militia amounted to 7451.

CHIEF TOWNS....Dover, being the seat of government, is considered as the metropolis, though it contains but about 140 houses. The state house, in which the legislature holds its annual sessions, and in which the different state courts sit, is a handsome brick building. Wilmington is the most considerable town in the state, containing 700 houses, and 4400 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in squares, similar to Philadelphia. It stands on a hill, elevated 109 feet above the level of the Delaware, and about two miles distant from that river. The public buildings are a stone poor house, two market houses, and a Town hall. The houses for public worship are, 2 presbyterian, 1 episcopalian, 1 quaker, 2 baptist, and 3 methodist. Newcastle, a post town, and the shire town of Newcastle county, is pleasantly situated on the west side of the Delaware, five miles below Wilmington. It contains about 170 houses, and 1100 inhabitants. The public buildings are, a court house, jail, three public offices, an academy and market house. The presbyterians, episcopalians, and Roman catholics, have each a house for public worship.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES....The staple commodity of this state is wheat, which is manufactured into flour, and exported in large quantities. Besides wheat and flour, lumber and various other articles are exported from Delaware. The amount of exports from this state, in the year 1802, was 697,396 dollars; and in 1810, 120,342 dollars. The most important manufacture is that of flour, the excellence of which has given a character and stability to this article over that of the other states. The number of merchant and grist mills in Delaware, is upwards of two hundred. The Brandywine mills, near Wilmington, are 14 in number, and are capable of manufacturing, annually, 500,000 bushels of wheat and corn, thereby giving employment to about 250 persons. Eight or ten sloops are constantly engaged in the transportation of the flour. Vessels carrying from 1 to 2000 bushels can lay along side of any of the mills to load or discharge. In the same neighbourhood, is the woollen manufactory, of Messrs. Dupont and Bauduy, which is the best establishment for fine cloths in the union. The same gentlemen have also an extensive powder mill in operation. There are two other woollen factories on the Brandywine, both on extensive plans. On the same stream are four paper mills, three rolling and slitting mills, and other mills for the manufacture of cotton, snuff, wire, &c. A manufactory of tutenague (zinc) has been begun, and from an examination of the composition by judges, it bids fair to excel the European manufactures of the same semi-metal.

GOVERNMENT....During the revolution, the three counties of Delaware were erected into a sovereign state, having a governor, senate, and house of representatives. The senators are nine in number, three from each county ; and the representatives twenty-one. The former must be 27 years old, and the latter 24 ; and senators must have a freehold of two hundred acres, or real and personal estate to the value of one thousand pounds. The governor is not eligible more than three years in six. In other particulars the constitution of Delaware almost exactly agrees with that of Pennsylvania.

RELIGION....In this state there is a variety of religious denominations. Of the presbyterian sect there are 24 churches ; of the episcopal, 14 ; of the baptists, 7 ; of the methodists and Friends, a considerable number. Besides these there is a Swedish church at Wilmington, which is one of the oldest churches in the United States.

LEARNING....There is a college in the borough of Wilmington, which was incorporated in 1803, and power given the trustees to hold property which should not exceed 2,666,000 dollars, yearly value. It is a handsome stone edifice, three stories high, containing accommodations for a large number of pupils. There is an academy at Newark, incorporated in 1769. The legislature, in January 1796, passed an act to create a fund for the establishment of schools throughout the state. At Wilmington, there is a very respectable female academy.

HISTORY....Settlements were made here by the Dutch about the year 1623, and by the Swedes about the year 1627. Their settlements were comprehended in the grant to the duke of York ; and William Penn united them to his government by purchase. They were afterwards separated in some measure from Pennsylvania, and denominated the Three Lower Counties. They had their own assemblies, but the governor of Pennsylvania used to attend, as he did in his own proper government. They joined the United Provinces in their opposition to the British Parliament in 1774 ; and they now send two senators and two representatives to the general congress.

MARYLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 134	} between	{ 75° 10' and 79° 20' West longitude. 38° and 39° 44' North latitude.	} 14,000
Breadth 110			

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by Pennsylvania and Delaware on the north ; by Delaware and the Atlantic Ocean, on the east ; by Virginia, on the south and west.

DIVISIONS....Maryland is naturally divided into two parts by the bay of Chesapeak, the eastern and the western. It contains 19 counties.

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Worcester,	16,971	Snow Hill.
Somerset,	17,195	Princess Anne.
Dorchester,	18,108	Cambridge.
Talbot,	14,230	Easton.
Cecil,	13,066	Elkton.
Queen Anne's,	16,648	Centreville.
Kent,	11,450	Chester.
Caroline,	9,453	Denton.
St. Mary's,	12,794	Leonardtown.
Charles,	20,245	Port Tobacco.
Prince George,	20,589	Upper Marlborough.
Calvert,	8,005	Prince Frederick, St. Leonards.
Ann Arundel,	26,668	Annapolis, West long. 75° 8' N. lat. 38° 56'.
Baltimore,	75,710	Baltimore.
Frederic,	34,437	Frederic Town.
Washington,	18,730	Hagerstown.
Montgomery,	17,980	Montgomery.
Harford,	21,258	Bellair.
Allegheny,	6,909	Cumberland.

The eight first counties are on the Eastern shore of the Chesapeake.

RIVERS....This country is indented with a vast number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Potomac, which divides it from Virginia, Pocomoke, Patuxent, Choptank, Severn, Patapsco, Gunpowder, Bush, Monokin, Wicomico, Nanticoke, Chester, Elk, East, and Sassafras.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE....In these particulars this state has nothing remarkable by which it may be

distinguished from those already described. The hills in the inland country are of so easy ascent, that they rather seem an artificial than a natural production. The climate is generally mild, and agreeably suited to agricultural productions and a great variety of fruit-trees. In the interior hilly country the inhabitants are healthy; but in the flat country, in the neighbourhood of the marshes and stagnant waters, they are, as in the other southern states, subject to intermittents. The vast number of rivers diffuses fertility through the soil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco and wheat (which are the staple commodities of this country) hemp, Indian corn, flax, &c.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....The number of inhabitants has of late years greatly increased, amounting in 1790 to 319,728, of whom 103,036 were slaves; in 1801, to 349,692, including 107,707 slaves; and in 1810, to 380,546, including 111,502 slaves. The militia is about 33,000.

CHIEF TOWNS....Annapolis, the capital of Maryland, is a small but well situated town, at the mouth of the river Severn. It is seated on a peninsula formed by the river, and two small creeks, and affords a beautiful prospect of Chesapeak bay, and the eastern shore beyond it. This city is of little note in the commercial world; but is the wealthiest town of its size in the United States. The houses, about three hundred in number, are spacious and elegant, and indicate great wealth. The state-house is among the noblest buildings of the kind in the Union. It stands in the centre of the city, from which point the streets diverge in every direction like radii. It contains about 2500 inhabitants.

Baltimore is the largest town in the state of Maryland: in size and commerce it is the fourth in rank in the United States. It is situated on the north side of Patapsco river, at a small distance from its junction with the Chesapeak. The city is built around what is called the basin, reckoned one of the finest harbours in America. The number of the inhabitants of the city and precincts in 1791, was 13,503, including 1255 slaves, and they have greatly increased since, amounting in 1810 to 46,555, with 4672 slaves.

Frederictown, in Frederic county, is the next in size to Baltimore. It contains seven houses for worship, and about 5000 inhabitants. The next in consequence is Hagerstown, in Washington county. It carries on a considerable trade with the western country, and contains a court house, jail, and five churches, with 2100 inhabitants.

TRADE....The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from Baltimore, with the other states, with the West Indies, and with various parts of Europe. To these places they send annually about 30,000 hogsheads of tobacco, besides large quantities of wheat, flour, pig-iron, lumber, and corn; beans, pork, and flax-seed in small quantities: and receive in return, clothing for themselves and negroes, and other dry goods, wines, spirits, sugars, and other West India commodities. The balance is generally in their favour. The total amount of exports from Baltimore in 1790, was 2,027,777 dollars, and in 1795, 5,811,379 dollars. In the year 1791, the quantity of wheat exported was 205,571 bushels. The exports in 1802, amounted to 9,151,939 dollars; and in 1810, to 6,489,018 dollars. This city exports a great deal of the produce of the western parts of Pennsylvania.

GOVERNMENT....The government of Maryland is vested in a governor and house of delegates, which are to be chosen annually, and

a senate, chosen by electors, who are elected by the freemen, every fifth year, two from each county, and one from each of the cities of Annapolis and Baltimore. The governor is elected by ballot, by the senate and house of delegates; and cannot continue in office longer than three years successively. All freemen above twenty-one years of age, having a freehold of fifty acres, or property to the value of thirty pounds, have a right of suffrage in the election of delegates, which is performed *viva voce*. All persons appointed to any office of profit and trust, are to subscribe a declaration of their belief in the Christian religion. The state is represented in the general congress by two senators and nine representatives.

RELIGION....The Roman-catholics were the first settlers in Maryland, and are more numerous here than in all the other states. Besides these there are Episcopalians, English, Scotch, and Irish Presbyterians, German Calvinists, German Lutherans, Friends, Baptists, Methodists, Menmonists, Nicolites, or new Quakers; who all enjoy liberty of conscience. The Presbyterians are supposed to be most numerous.

COLLEGES....The seminaries of learning in this state are as follows: Washington Academy, in Somerset county, which was instituted by law in 1779. Washington College, instituted at Chester town in Kent county in 1782. By a law enacted in 1787, a permanent fund was granted to this institution, of 1250*l.* a year currency. St. John's College was instituted in 1784, to which a permanent fund is assigned of 175*l.* a year. This college is to be at Annapolis, where a building is now prepared for it. Very liberal subscriptions were obtained towards founding and carrying on these seminaries. The two colleges constitute one university, by the name of "The University of Maryland," whereof the governor of the state for the time being is chancellor, and the principal of one of them vice-chancellor. The Roman-catholics have also erected a college at Georgetown on Potomac river for the promotion of general literature. In 1785 the Methodists instituted a college at Abington in Harford county, by the name of Cokesbury College, which has since been destroyed by fire, and never rebuilt.

HISTORY....Maryland, like the provinces we have formerly described, owes its settlement to religious considerations. As they, however, were peopled by Protestants, Maryland was originally planted by Roman-catholics. This sect, towards the close of Charles the First's reign, was the object of great hatred to the bulk of the English nation; and the laws in force against the Papists were executed with great severity. This in part arose from an opinion, that the court was too favourably disposed towards this form of religion. It is certain that many marks of favour were conferred on the Roman-catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the most eminent, in great favour with the court, and on that account most odious to the generality of the English. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country, which formerly was considered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of Queen Henrietta Maria, daughter to Henry IV, of France, and spouse to king Charles. The year following, about 200 popish families, some of considerable distinction, embarked with lord Baltimore, to enter into possession of this new territory. These settlers, who had that liberality and good breeding which distinguish gentlemen of every religion, bought their lands at an easy price from the native Indians;

they even lived with them for some time in the same city ; and the same harmony continued to subsist between the two nations, until the Indians were imposed on by the malicious insinuations of some planters in Virginia, who envied the prosperity of this popish colony, and inflamed the Indians against them, by ill-grounded reports, such as were sufficient to stir up the resentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reason to be so. The colony, however, was not wanting to its own safety on this occasion. Though they continued their friendly intercourse with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to use every other precaution for their defence against sudden hostilities : the defeat of this attempt gave a new spring to the activity of this plantation, which was likewise receiving frequent reinforcements from England, of those who found themselves in danger by the approaching revolution. But, during the protectorship of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland ; Baltimore was deprived of his rights, and a new governor, appointed by the protector, substituted in his room. At the restoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural possessor. Baltimore was reinstated in his rights, and fully discovered how well he deserved to be so. He established a perfect toleration in all religious matters ; the colony increased and flourished, and dissenters of all denominations, allured by the prospect of gain, flocked into Maryland.

At the revolution, lord Baltimore was again deprived of his government, on account of his supposed attachment to James II. But, after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the interest. The government of this country exactly resembled that in Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietor, and only confirmed by the crown.

VIRGINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 446	} between	{ 75° 54' and 83° 8' West longitude. 36° 30' and 40° 30' North latitude. }	70,000
Breadth 224			

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by Maryland, part of Pennsylvania, and the Ohio river, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by North Carolina, on the south; and by Kentucky, on the west.

DIVISIONS...Virginia is divided into 96 counties, as follows.

Situation.	Counties.	Situation.	Counties.
West of the Blue Ridge.	Ohio	Between the Blue Ridge and the Tide-waters.	Loudoun
	Monongalia		Fauquier
	Washington		Culpepper
	Montgomery		Spotsylvania
	Wythe		Orange
	Botetourt		Louisa
	Green-briar		Goochland
	Kenawa		Fluvanna
	Hampshire		Albermarle
	Berkley		Amherst
	Frederick		Buckingham
	Shenandoah		Bedford
	Rockingham		Henry
	Augusta		Pittsylvania
	Rockbridge		Halifax
	Jefferson		Madison
	Hardy		Nelson
	Randolph		Campbell
	Brooke		Franklin
	Harrison		Patrick
	Wood		Charlotte
	Mason		Prince Edward
	Cabell		Cumberland
	Tazewell		Powhatan
	Russell		Amelia
	Lee		Nottaway
	Scott	Between James river and North Carolina.	Lunenburg
	Grayson		Mecklenburgh
	Giles		Brunswick
	Monroe		Greensville
	Bath		Dinwiddie
	Pendleton		Chesterfield

Situation.	Counties.	Situation.	Counties.
Between James river and North Carolina.	Prince George	Between York and Rappahannoc rivers.	Caroline
	Surry		King William
	Sussex		King and Queen
	Southampton		Essex
	Isle of Wight		Middlesex
Between James and York rivers.	Nansemond	Between Rappahannoc and Potomac rivers.	Gloucester
	Norfolk		Matthews
	Princess Ann		Prince William
	Henrico		Stafford
	Hanover		King George
	New Kent		Richmond
	Charles City		Westmoreland
	James City		Northumberland
	York		Lancaster
	Warwick	Eastern shore.	Fairfax
	Elizabeth City		Accomac
			Northampton.

CAPES, BAYS, AND RIVERS...In sailing to Virginia or Maryland, you pass a strait between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a passage into the bay of Chesapeake, one of the largest and safest in the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the south to the north, is about eighteen miles broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is the narrowest, the waters in most places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vast number of navigable rivers from the sides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, besides others of less note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannoc, and the Potomac: these are not only navigable for large ships into the heart of the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is, without all manner of doubt, the country in the world of all others of the most convenient navigation. It has been observed, and the observation is not much exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door.

METALS AND MINERALS...Virginia abounds more with minerals and fossils than any state in the Union. Iron, lead, copper, black-lead, coal, marble, lime stone, are found in this country; a single lump of gold ore has likewise been found near the falls of Rappahannoc river, which yielded 17 dwt. of gold of extraordinary ductility; but no other indications of gold have been observed. Crystals are common: some amethysts, and one emerald, have been discovered.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY...The whole face of this country is so extremely low towards the sea, that you are very near the shore before you can discover land from the mast head. The lofty trees, which cover the soil, gradually rise as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting prospect. You travel 100 miles into the country without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extensive coast of North America. The western parts, on the contrary, are intersected by several ridges of mountains; and the vallies between are very rich, being watered by numerous streams.

CLIMATE...In summer the heats here are excessive, though not without refreshing breezes from the sea. The weather is changeable, and the change is sudden and violent. The winter frosts come

on without the least warning. To a warm day there sometimes succeeds such an intense cold in the evening as to freeze over the largest rivers; though this is a very rare occurrence.

The air and seasons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryness and moisture. In winter, they have generally a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleasant. Their spring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June the heat increases; and the summer is refreshed with gentle breezes from the sea, that rise about nine o'clock, and decrease or increase as the sun rises or falls. In July and August these breezes are less constant, the air becomes more stagnant, and violently hot: in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occasion all the train of diseases incident to a moist climate, particularly agues and intermitting fevers. But this description relates principally to the country that lies eastward of the mountains. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any mischief.

SOIL AND PRODUCE....Towards the sea-shore and the banks of the rivers, the soil of Virginia consists of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a distance from the water there is a lightness and sandiness of the soil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and, aided by a kindly sun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well. The western counties are diversified by mountains and vallies, and contain a soil well adapted to grass or grains; of both great crops are produced.

From what has been said of the soil and climate, it is easy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The forests are covered with all sorts of lofty trees, and in some places free from underwood or bushes; so that people travel with ease through them on horseback, under a fine shade, which defends them from the sun: the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering shrubs of the richest colours and most fragrant scent. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the snake-root, and ginseng, are here in great plenty. There is no sort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants are not so much engrossed with the culture of the tobacco plant as formerly; wheat, Indian, and other grain occupy the land more profitably; flax and hemp are produced, not only for their own consumption, but for exportation, though not in such quantities as might be expected from the nature of the soil, which is admirably fitted for producing these commodities.

ANIMALS....We shall here observe, that there were neither horses, cows, sheep, nor hogs in America before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied so extremely, that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the more southern states, run wild. Before the revolution, beef and pork were sold here from one penny to two pence a pound; the fattest pullets at six pence a piece; chickens at three or four shillings a dozen; geese at ten pence; and turkeys at eighteen pence a piece. But fish and wild fowl were still cheaper in their season, and deer were sold from five to ten shillings a piece. This estimate may serve for the other American colonies, where provisions were equally plentiful and cheap, and in some still lower. Since the revolution all these arti-

cles have advanced 200 per cent. Besides the animals transported from Europe, those natural to the country are deer, of which the number is decreasing annually, a sort of panther or tiger, bears, wolves, foxes, squirrels, rabbits, opossums, racoons, &c. In Virginia there are all sorts of tame and wild fowl.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....The inhabitants of Virginia amounted, according to the census of 1790, to 747,610, of whom 292,627 were negroes; in 1801, by the census then taken, their number was 886,149, including 346,968 slaves. By the census of 1810, the number of inhabitants was 974,622, including 392,518 slaves. The militia is about 76,000 men.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS....In delineating the character of a nation correctly, we must take it from the inhabitants of the country, who, almost every where, but especially in the United States, constitute the great mass of the population. In the large trading towns of the Union, there is a great similarity of character, produced by frequent intercourse, and the common genius of commerce: their speculations, and, in some degree, their manners are moulded in the same moral forms. But among the peasantry, who live more isolated, and whose moral features are more distinctly marked, there are obvious shades of difference; and these shades begin to show themselves more sensibly to the eye of an inquisitive traveller, as he passes through the southern states. He no longer beholds so great a proportion of hardy, industrious, and healthful yeomanry, living on terms of equality and independence; their domestic economy neat and comfortable; their farms well stocked; in good order; and their cattle sleek and thriving. On the contrary, he discovers the farm houses more thinly scattered, some of them mere hovels, the retreats of small proprietors who are too indolent to improve their estates. A few miles distant perhaps he finds a large mansion-house, the property of the lord of two or three thousand acres of land, surrounded by 50 or 100 negro huts. But these remarks apply chiefly to the inhabitants of this state that live on the east side of the Blue Ridge; the western part has fewer blacks, and more industrious whites, in proportion; being settled in a great measure by emigrants from Pennsylvania and New-Jersey, who differ from their eastern neighbours. Horse racing is a very fashionable amusement, and there is a great number of fine horses kept for this purpose. The ruinous custom of gambling is also very prevalent. Many of the gentry of this state have received a very liberal education, are polished in their manners, and extremely hospitable to strangers. Their houses are at all times open to the traveller who makes a decent appearance.

Virginia has produced some of the most distinguished actors in effecting the American revolution. Her political and military character ranks among the first in the history of the United States. But it is to be observed that this distinction has been obtained for the Virginians by a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all their public transactions, and who, in short, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themselves with the government, as none but freeholders enjoy the right of suffrage. So that their government, though nominally democratic, is in fact aristocratical.

CHIEF TOWNS...Virginia is not divided into townships, nor are there any large towns, owing probably to the intersection of the country by navigable rivers, which bring the trade to the doors of the inhabitants, and prevent the necessity of their going in quest of it to a distance. The principal towns are, Richmond, the capital, Williamsburg, and Norfolk. Richmond contains between 1000 and 1200 houses, and 9,735 inhabitants. Here is a large state-house, or capitol, erected on a hill which commands an extensive prospect of the lower part of the town, the river, and the adjacent country; an episcopal church, a court-house and jail. It had a theatre, which, in December 1811, was consumed during an exhibition, and with it the governor of the state, and nearly 100 others, of the most respectable inhabitants. Williamsburg was the seat of government till 1780. It contains about 100 houses, and about 1400 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in parallel streets, with a pleasant square in the centre, of about ten acres, through which runs the principal street, about a mile in length, and more than 200 feet wide. Norfolk is the most considerable commercial town in Virginia. The harbour is safe and commodious, and large enough to contain 300 ships. In 1790, the number of inhabitants in Norfolk was 2959, including 1294 slaves; and in 1810, 9,193, including 3,825 slaves. The first town established by the English in Virginia, and, indeed, in the new world, was James Town. This continued to be the seat of government till the year 1700, when it was removed to Williamsburg. James Town long enjoyed exclusive privileges. It was for many years the sole port of entry and delivery. But it is now entirely desolated. The steeple of a church, a few fragments of tomb-stones, and a brick house, supposed to have been built by the early adventurers for a magazine, are the only vestiges of the oldest town in the new world. On the 13th of May, 1607, the spot where James Town was built, was selected for the first settlement in Virginia. It lies on the north bank of James river, in James City county, and was originally a peninsula, but by the gradual encroachments of the river on the bank, the neck of land which joined it to the main, has been entirely worn away, and it is now an island.

TRADE...The trade of Virginia consists principally in tobacco, and different kinds of grain. In 1790, about 40,000 hogsheads of tobacco were exported; but its culture has since declined, and that of wheat taken place. The greatest quantity of tobacco ever produced in this country was 70,000 hogsheads in the year 1758. The exports from this state, in the year 1792, amounted to 3,549,499 dollars; in 1796, to 5,268,615; in 1802, to 8,000,000; in 1804, to 5,790,000; and in 1810, to 4,822,611. The coal mines on James' river have lately produced a very considerable trade with the neighbouring states.

GOVERNMENT...The government of this state, like that of all the rest, is divided into a legislative, executive and judiciary department, and the powers of each are nominally distinguished. The legislative is styled the general assembly, and consists of two branches, a senate and house of delegates. They are both chosen by the freeholders of the state; the senate for four years, with an annual rotation of one fourth, and the delegates for one year. The members of both houses must be freeholders and residents. The two houses appoint the state treasurer, and all the principal judiciary officers. The executive is composed of a governor and council, who are elected by the general assembly, annually. They possess the power of granting

reprieves and pardons in some cases; appoint justices of peace; and sign commissions; but have no negative or suspensive power on the legislature. The judges have fixed salaries, and enjoy their commissions during good behaviour; but they may be tried by a general court, for misconduct in office, and removed from their seats if convicted. The state sends to congress 2 senators, and 23 representatives; which, according to the ratio of one representative for thirty-five thousand persons, gives Virginia 17 representatives for the white inhabitants, and 6 for the blacks or slaves.

RELIGION....The duties of religion are much neglected in Virginia. There are whole counties, in which there is not a single house for public worship of any kind. The present denominations of Christians are Presbyterians, who are most numerous, Episcopalians, Baptists, Friends, and Methodists. The first settlers were Episcopalians. All enjoy an equal toleration.

COLLEGES....There is a college at Williamsburg, founded by king William, and called William and Mary College. That monarch gave two thousand pounds towards building it, and twenty thousand acres of land, with power to purchase and hold lands to the value of two thousand pounds a year, and a duty of a penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a president, six professors, and other officers, who are always appointed by the governors, or visitors. The academy in Prince Edward county has been erected into a college by the name of Hampden Sidney college. There are besides a number of academies in different parts of Virginia: one at Alexandria, one at Norfolk, one at Hanover, and others in other places. Most of the counties are furnished with common English schools, where children are taught to read, write, and cast accounts.

HISTORY....This is the first country which the English planted in America. They derived their right, not only to this, but to all their other settlements, as has been already observed, from the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, who, in 1497, first made the northern continent of America, in the service of Henry VII, of England. No attempts, however, were made to settle it till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that sir Walter Raleigh applied to court, and got together a company, which was composed of several persons of distinction, and several eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade and settle a colony in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, several attempts were made for settling this colony, before any proved successful. The three first companies who sailed to Virginia perished through hunger and diseases, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced almost to the same situation; and being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had set sail for England, in despair of living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by such hostile and warlike savages. But, in the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, they were met by lord Delaware, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion they returned: by his advice, prudence, and winning behaviour, the internal government of the colony was settled within itself, and put on a respectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromising province of Virginia from the noblest motives, was compelled, by the decayed state of his health, to return to England. He

left behind him, however, his son as deputy; with sir Thomas Gates, sir George Sommers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them, James Town, the first town built by the English in the New World, was erected. The colony continued to flourish, and the true sources of its wealth began to be discovered and improved. The first settlers, like those of Maryland, were generally persons of consideration and distinction. It remained a steady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and, under the government of sir William Berkeley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by stratagem than force, reduced them. After the restoration there is nothing very interesting in the history of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himself of some discontents in the colony on account of restraints in trade, became very popular, and threw every thing into confusion. His death, however, restored peace and unanimity.

The government of this province was not at first adapted to the principles of the English constitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a subject of Great Britain thinks himself entitled in every part of the globe. It was subject to a governor and council appointed by the king of Great Britain. As the inhabitants increased, the inconvenience of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the constitution, by which the people, who had formerly no consideration, were allowed to elect their representatives from each county into which the country was divided, with privileges resembling those of the representatives of the commons of England. Thus two houses, the upper and lower house of assembly, were formed. The upper house, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members were appointed, during pleasure, by the crown; they were styled honourable, and answered in some measure to the house of peers in the British constitution. The lower house was the guardian of the people's liberties. When any bill had passed the two houses, it came before the governor, who gave his assent or negative as he thought proper. It now acquired the force of a law, until it was transmitted to England, and the king's pleasure known on that subject. The upper house of assembly acted not only as a part of the legislature, but also as privy council to the governor, without whose concurrence he could do nothing of moment; it sometimes acted as a court of chancery. This form of government lasted till the American Revolution, which Virginia was one of the first in promoting. Seven delegates were sent by this province to meet the general congress at Philadelphia, in 1774.

KENTUCKY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Length 300	} between {	50,000
Breadth 180		

BOUNDARIES....Bounded on the north and north-west by the river Ohio, which separates it from the state of Ohio, and Indiana and Illinois territories; west, by the river Mississippi, which divides it from Missouri Territory; south, by Tennessee, and east by Virginia.

DIVISIONS....Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferson. It has since been subdivided into fifty-four.

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Jefferson,	13,399	Louisville.
Fayette,	21,370	Lexington.
Bourbon,	18,009	Paris.
Mercer,	12,630	Harodsburgh.
Nelson,	14,078	Bairdstown.
Madison,	15,540	Richmond.
Lincoln,	8,676	Stanford.
Woodford,	9,659	Versailles.
Mason,	12,459	Washington.
Washington,	13,248	Springfield.
Clarke,	11,519	Winchester.
Scott,	12,491	Georgetown.
Logan,	12,123	Russellville.
Franklin,	8,013	FRANKFORT.
Adair,	6,011	Columbia.
Barrin,	11,286	Glasgow.
Boone,	3,608	Wilmington.
Bracken,	3,706	Augusta.
Breckenridge,	3,430	Hardinsburg.
Butler,	2,118	Morgantown.
Bullet,	4,311	Shepherdsville.
Casey,	3,285	Liberty
Campbell,	3,473	Newport.
Christian,	11,020	Hopkinsville.
Cumberland,	6,191	Burksville.
Clay,	2,398	Manchester.
Caldwell,	4,268	Eddyville.
Estle,	2,082	

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Fleming,	8,947	Flemingsburg.
Floyd,	3,485	Prestonville.
Gallatin,	3,307	Port William.
Greenup,	2,369	Greenupburg.
Green,	6,735	Greensburg.
Grayson,	2,301	
Garrand,	9,186	Lancaster.
Henry,	6,777	Newcastle.
Harrison,	7,752	Cyntheana.
Henderson,	4,703	Hendersonville.
Harden,	7,531	Elizabethtown.
Hopkins,	2,964	Madisonville.
Jessamine,	8,377	Nicholasville.
Knox,	5,875	Barboursville.
Livingston,	3,674	Smithland.
Lewis,	2,357	Clarksville.
Muhlenburg,	4,181	Greenville.
Montgomery,	12,975	Mountsterling.
Nicholas,	4,898	Ellisville.
Ohio,	3,792	Hartford.
Pulaski,	6,897	
Pendleton,	3,061	Falmouth.
Rockcastle,	1,731	Mountvernon.
Shelby,	14,877	Shelbyville.
Wayne,	5,430	Montecello.
Warren,	11,937	Bowling-Green.

406,511

RIVERS....The Ohio bounds Kentucky, on the north-western side, in its whole length; and the branches of this river water and fertilize the country in every part. The principal of these are the Big Sandy, which forms part of the boundary line between this state and Virginia; Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green, Tennessee, and Cumberland rivers, which receive on every side numerous streams of different magnitudes.

CLIMATE....The climate is healthy and delightful, some few places in the neighbourhood of ponds and low grounds excepted. The early inhabitants did not experience the extremes of heat and cold; none of the neighbouring states enjoying so constant a temperature; but the climate has considerably altered since the country has been opened and cultivated. The changes from one temperature to another are much more frequent than formerly. The winter, which begins about Christmas, is seldom longer than three months, and is commonly but two; and is so mild, that cattle can subsist without fodder.

METALS, MINERALS....There are some iron mines in this state, but only one of them, according to the latest accounts, is worked. Iron ore, lime-stone, and numerous unexplored mines of coal, are nearly the only mineral substances observed here.

SOIL, PRODUCE....The soil is extremely fertile; the lands of the first rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce 50 and 60, and in some instances, 100 bushels of good corn an acre. In common the land will produce 30 bushels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats,

flax, hemp, and vegetables of all kinds common in this climate yield abundantly. Cotton is with difficulty brought to perfection, but the soil appears to be peculiarly suitable to tobacco.

ANIMALS....Here are bears, deer, elks, and many other animals common to the United States. The rivers abound in the finest fish : salmon, roach, perch, eel, and all kinds of hook fish. The paroquet is common here ; as is the ivory-bill woodpecker.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES....The banks, or rather precipices, of the rivers Kentucky and Dick, may be reckoned among the natural curiosities of this country. Here the astonished eye beholds 300 or 400 feet of solid perpendicular rock, in some parts of the lime stone kind, and in others of fine white marble, curiously chequered with strata of astonishing regularity. Caves are found amazingly large, in some of which you may travel several miles under a fine lime stone rock, supported by curious arches and pillars. In most of them run streams of water. There is a cave in Rockcastle county, so large, that a yoke of oxen and cart can drive in at one side of a large hill, and come out at the other, at the distance of about half a mile. There is another in Warren county, which is said to have been explored about seven miles, and the extent of it not yet ascertained. Most of these caves furnish earth, from which large quantities of salt petre are made. There are three springs or ponds of bitumen near Green river, which discharge themselves into a common reservoir, and, when used in lamps, answer all the purposes of the finest oil.* At a salt spring near the Ohio river, very large bones have been found, far surpassing the size of any species of animals now in America : the head appears to have been considerably above three feet long. Dr. Hunter said it could not be the elephant, and that, from the form of the teeth, it must have been carnivorous, and belonging to a race of animals now extinct. Specimens have been sent to France and England, but the most complete is now preserved in Peale's Museum at Philadelphia. What animal this is, and by what means its remains are found in these regions (where none such now exist) are very difficult questions, and variously resolved.

POPULATION....The number of inhabitants in this country has increased, by emigration from the other states, with surprising rapidity. Before the year 1782, they did not exceed 3000. In 1790 they amounted to 73,677, of whom 12,430 were slaves. At the general census in 1800, they were found to be 220,960, including 40,343 slaves ; and, according to that of 1810, they amounted to 406,511, including 80,561 slaves.

CHIEF TOWNS....Kentucky as yet contains no very large towns ; the principal are Lexington, Louisville, Washington, Danville, and Frankfort. Lexington is the largest town in the state, and, with the exception of Pittsburg, in Pennsylvania, the most considerable inland town westward of the Allegheny mountains. It contains about 800 houses, and 4500 inhabitants, and is progressing with almost unexampled rapidity in wealth and population.

The Kentucky river at Lexington forms a semicircle, and almost surrounds the town and its vicinity ; making a distance thence to Boonsborough of 18 miles, and to Frankfort of 22 miles, in a journey by land ; while a circuit by water between these places is upwards of 180 miles.

* Morse's American Geography, p. 407.

There are established here seven rope-walks and five factories of coarse linen cloth, which employ more than 500 workmen; besides three houses for cotton spinning, one of which is on a very extensive plan. The town contains five places of public worship; two banking houses; a theatre; and a circulating library; all of them in prosperous circumstances. It is also the seat of an university, endowed with ample funds, possessing a handsome library and philosophical apparatus, and containing professorships in the various departments of law, medicine, philosophy, and literature. Lexington was formerly the seat of government, but the public offices have been several years since removed to Frankfort, which was preferred for its situation, but is neither so populous nor commercial a place.

TRADE...The principal part of the commerce of Kentucky is carried on by the merchants of Lexington. A considerable proportion of the fabricated articles consumed in Kentucky, as well as in the rest of the United States, are imported from England. They consist principally of coarse and fine iron goods, cutlery, nails, and tin-ware; drapery, mercery, drugs, and fine pottery. Muslins, nankeen, tea, &c. are imported directly from India in American vessels; and they obtain coffee, and raw sugar of different qualities, from the West Indies. These are exchanged for the produce of the country, principally by barter, on account of the extreme scarcity of coin.* New-Orleans has of late become the principal entrepot of the Kentucky trade. The exports in 1802 amounted to 626,673 dollars, wholly of domestic produce.

GOVERNMENT....By the constitution of this state, formed and adopted in 1792, the legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives; the supreme executive in a governor; the judiciary in the supreme court of appeals, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The representatives are chosen annually by the people; the senators and governor are chosen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpose; the judges are appointed, during good behaviour, by the governor, with the advice of the senate. The number of representatives cannot exceed one hundred, nor be less than forty; and the senate, at first consisting of eleven, is to increase with the house of representatives, in the ratio of one to four. This state sends 2 senators and 6 representatives to congress.

RELIGION....The Baptists are the most numerous religious sect in Kentucky. There are several large congregations of Presbyterians, Methodists, and some few of other denominations.

COLLEGES, LEARNING....The legislature of Virginia, while Kentucky belonged to that state, made provision for a college in it, and endowed it with very considerable funds. This college has not flourished, and another has been established, the funds for the support of which have been furnished by liberal contributions. Schools are established in the several towns, and in general regularly and properly maintained. There are two printing-offices at Lexington, and a newspaper is published by each of them, which appears twice a week. Polite literature is patronised, and there is a considerable demand for miscellaneous and scientific books.

HISTORY....The history of this state is the same with that of Virginia, of which it made a part till the year 1792, when it was erect-

* Michaux.

ed into an independent state. It was first discovered in 1770 by some Virginian hunters, and the favourable account they gave of it, induced others to go thither. However, there was not any fixed establishment formed till 1780. At that time this extensive country was not occupied by any Indian nation: they came there to hunt, but with one accord carried on a war of extermination against all who attempted to settle there. This was the cause of giving the name of Kentucky to the county, which, in the language of the primitive Americans, signifies the land of blood. When the whites appeared there, the natives gave a still more obstinate opposition to their establishment: for a long time they spread devastation and slaughter through the country, and, according to their custom, put their prisoners to death with the most cruel torments. This state of things lasted until 1783, at which time the American population having become too great for them to be able to penetrate into the heart of the establishments, they were reduced to attacking the emigrants on their road. In 1782, roads for carriages were begun to be opened through the interior of the country. Before that time there were nothing but tracts, passable only by people on foot or on horseback. Until 1788 the road through Virginia was the only one followed by the emigrants who came from the eastern states to Kentucky. They went first to the block-house, situate at Houlston, to the west of the mountains; and as the government of the United States did not furnish any escort, they waited at this place until their numbers were sufficient to pass safely through the wilderness, an uninhabited interval of a hundred and thirty miles, which they were obliged to cross before they arrived at Crab-orchard, the first post occupied by the whites.

“The enthusiasm for emigrating to Kentucky was at this time carried to such a height in the United States, that in some years as many as 20,000 emigrants went thither, and several of them even abandoned their property, if they were unable to dispose of it in a short time. The influx of new colonists soon raised the price of land in Kentucky, so that from two or three pence an acre, at which it had been sold, it rose rapidly to forty or fifty pence. Speculators took advantage of this infatuation. A multiplicity of illicit means were employed to make these lands sell to advantage. Even forged plans were fabricated, on which rivers were laid down, calculated for the establishment of mills, and for other uses. In this manner many ideal lots from 500 to 100,000 acres were sold all over Europe, and in some of the large towns of the United States.”* This has given rise to a multitude of disputed titles, and vexatious law suits. At present the people are more cautious of purchasing Kentucky titles, and the rage for emigration abates.

* Michaux.

NORTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.				Sq. Miles.
Length 450	} between	{	75° 45' and 84° West longitude.	48,000
Breadth 180			33° 50' and 36° 30' North latitude.	

BOUNDARIES...Bounded by Virginia on the north ; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east ; by South Carolina and Georgia on the south ; and the state of Tennessee on the west.

DIVISIONS....North Carolina is divided into six circuits, in which are sixty-two counties.

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Chowan,	6,538	Edenton.
Currituck,	7,322	Indiantown.
Cambden,	5,347	Jonesborough.
Pasquotank,	7,674	Elizabeth city.
Perquimons,	6,050	Hartford.
Gates,	5,966	
Hertford,	6,052	Winton.
Bertie,	11,218	Windsor.
Tyrrel,	3,364	Elizabeth.
New Hanover,	11,463	Wilmington.
Brunswick,	4,778	Smithville.
Duplin,	7,857	
Bladen,	5,666	Elizabeth.
Onslow,	6,694	Swansborough.
Craven,	12,676	Newbern.
Beaufort,	7,203	Washington.
Carteret,	4,829	Beaufort.
Johnson,	6,867	Smithfield.
Pitt,	9,169	Greenville.
Lenoir,	5,572	Kingston.
Wayne,	8,692	Waynesborough.
Hyde,	6,110	Germanton.
Jones,	4,968	Trenton.
Halifax,	15,620	Halifax.
Northampton,	13,082	
Martin,	5,987	Williamston.
Edgecombe,	12,423	Tarborough.
Warren,	11,104	Warrenton.
Franklin,	10,230	Louisburg.
Nash,	7,282	
Orange,	20,137	Hillsborough.

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Chatham,	12,980	Pittsborough.
Granville,	15,576	Oxford.
Person,	6,676	Roxborough.
Caswell,	11,817	
Wake,	17,086	Raleigh.
Randolph,	10,112	Johnstonville.
Rowan,	21,543	Salisbury.
Cabarrus,	6,155	Concord.
Mecklenburg,	14,270	Charlotte.
Rockingham,	10,278	Wentworth.
Iredell,	10,972	Statesville.
Surry,	11,306	Rockford.
Montgomery,	8 470	Henderson.
Stokes,	11,650	Germantown.
Guilford,	12,372	Greensborough.
Burke,	11,007	Morganton.
Rutherford,	13,221	Rutherfordton.
Lincoln,	16,369	Lincolnton.
Wilkes,	9,054	Wilkesborough.
Buncombe,	9,277	Asheville.
Cumberland,	11,374	Fayetteville.
Moore,	6,367	Fagansville.
Richmond,	6,695	Rockingham.
Robeson,	7,528	Lumberton.
Sampson,	6,621	
Anson,	8,331	Wadesborough.
Haywood,	2,780	Waynesville.
Greene,	4,872	Snow Hill.
Washington,	3,464	Plymouth.
Columbus,	3,148	Whitesville.
Ashe,	3,694	Jefferson.

RIVERS AND CAPES....The principal rivers of North Carolina are the Chowan, and its branches, Roanoke, Tar, Neuse, and Cape Fear, or Clarendon. Cape Fear empties into the ocean below Wilmington, and is navigable for large ships to within seven miles of that town. The Roanoke and Chowan discharge their waters into Albemarle sound, and Taw and Neuse into Pamlico sound. Fishing creek, between Halifax and Nash counties, has been lately made navigable for boats and rafts for 40 miles. Drowning creek, by an act of assembly, has had its name changed to Lumber river. Lumberton is on this river, from whence it is navigable to Georgetown. Most of these and the smaller rivers have bars at their mouths, and the coast furnishes no good harbours except Cape Fear. The principal capes are, Cape Fear, Cape Look-out, and Cape Hatteras.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE....The western hilly parts of North Carolina are as healthy as any part of America; but in the flat country near the sea-coast, the inhabitants, during the summer and autumn, are subject to intermitting fevers, which often prove fatal. North Carolina, in its whole width, for sixty miles from the sea, is a dead level. A great proportion of this tract lies in forests, and is of poor quality, and chiefly valuable on account of the timber; but there are also many large swamps, which, being drained, would prove equally productive, with the richest soil. On the banks of all the rivers, the

land is fertile and good, producing at an average about thirty bushels of corn to the acre; though the Roanoke and Cape Fear are subject, at certain seasons, to inundations, which destroy in a few days the labour of the year. Near the sea coast are several large lakes, round the margin of which, there are immense tracts of the most valuable land, which produce, at an average, thirty bushels of wheat, and from thirty to forty bushels of Indian corn, to the acre, without any aid from manure. The western hilly parts of the state are fertile, and every where watered by springs and rivulets. One hundred miles from the sea, the country rises into hills and mountains, as in South Carolina and Georgia. Tobacco, wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, and flax, grow well in the back hilly country; Indian corn, and pulse of all kinds, in all parts. Cotton is much cultivated in the southern parts of the state for exportation, and in all parts for domestic use. It is planted yearly; the stalk dies with the frost. The labour of one man will produce 1000 pounds in the seeds, or 250 fit for manufacturing. Rice of a superiour quality, and in great abundance, is raised, for exportation, near Wilmington. The large natural growth of the plains in the low country is almost universally pitch pine, which is a tall handsome tree, far superior to the pitch pine of the northern states. The swamps abound with cypress, laurel, gum, and bay trees. Some of these swamps are very extensive; that called the Great Dismal covering 500 square miles, and containing several small lakes. It is valuable only on account of the juniper trees, with which it abounds. These are made into shingles, which are highly esteemed for their durability.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....The number of inhabitants in North Carolina, in 1790, was 393,751, of whom 100,571 were slaves; in 1801, 478,103, including 133,296 slaves; and in 1810, 563,526, including 202,243 slaves. The increase of population from 1790 to 1810, was 85,523. The militia is 50,000.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE INHABITANTS....The people of North Carolina live in ease and plenty, and the more wealthy class in a considerable degree of luxury and refinement. Poverty is here almost an entire stranger; and the planters are the most hospitable people that are to be met with, to all strangers, and especially to such as, by accidents or misfortunes, are rendered incapable of providing for themselves. The general topics of conversation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene, are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice, tobacco, &c.

The North Carolinians are accused of being rather too deficient in the virtues of temperance and industry; and a strange and very barbarous practice prevailed among the lower class of people, before the revolution, in the back parts of Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, called *gouging*.* but we have lately been informed that it is now a rare thing to hear of such brutalities.

* The delicate and entertaining diversion, with propriety called gouging, is thus described. When two boxers are wearied with fighting and bruising each other, they come, as it is called, to close quarters, and each endeavours to twist his forefingers in the ear-locks of his antagonist. When these are fast clinched, the thumbs are extended each way to the nose, and the eyes gently turned out of the sockets. The victor for his expertness receives shouts of applause from the sporting throng, while his poor eyeless antagonist is laughed at for his misfortune. But this practice is hardly more brutal than the boxing matches in England, which to this day are patronised by the nobility and gentry.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES....On the summit of a mountain, in Burke county, about 17 miles from Morgantown, is an immense rock called the Table rock. It is 500 yards long and 300 wide. This vast steep is by computation, more than 100 yards in its average height, above the surface of the mountain. The prospect from the top is very extensive. The front side, and each end of the rock, are perpendicular. The sides of the mountain, below the front, are perpendicular to a considerable distance below. The opposite side descends from the summit, gradually for 120 yards, after which the descent is more steep, to the base of the mountain, on the margin of the river Linville. The rapid falls of this river, many miles above, are seen from the summit. There is a deep fissure in this rock, the entrance to which is at its highest end. The passage is about thirteen feet wide, and the sides are straight and perpendicular. After descending by a flight of natural steps, a considerable distance, there is a rock in the passage, nearly similar to a water wheel, from the massy top of which, the spectator, in looking upwards, has a prospect resembling that of the natural bridge in Virginia, except that the walls are nearer together, more perpendicular, and uncovered above.

The Ararat, or Pilot mountain, near Salem, is reckoned among the natural curiosities of North Carolina. It is near a mile in height, and surmounted by a stupendous rock, having very much the appearance of an irregular fortification. In Rowan county there is a curious subterranean wall. Its length has been traced 300 feet, and its height is from 12 to 14. When first discovered, it was supposed to have been a work of art, but subsequent observation has determined it to be a natural production of basalt. There is a natural well in Duplin county, which serves as a drain to the surrounding tract. It is 50 feet in circumference, and about the same in depth. In rainy seasons, it receives the unabsorbed water of the neighbourhood, and conveys it off, by a subterranean passage, the outlet of which is not known.

CHIEF TOWNS....Newbern is the largest town in North Carolina, and was formerly the residence of the governors, one of whom (governor Tryon) built a splendid palace on the banks of the Trent river, which has been burned. There are several brick dwellings, some of which have claims to elegance, but the principal part of the houses are of wood. There is a brick church for the Episcopalians, and two of wood, for the Methodists and Baptists. The other public buildings are, an Academy, Court-house, and Masonic Hall. The latter combines under its roof a Theatre, Assembly room and Lodge room. The latter room contains portraits of many of the most distinguished members of the lodge. The theatre is handsome, but has no company, and itinerants receive but little encouragement to visit it. The court-house is a new building, three stories high, with a handsome spire. Newbern has about 3600 inhabitants. Wilmington is the principal sea port in the state, and contains 3758 inhabitants. Edenton was formerly the residence of the provincial governors, and a place of considerable trade, but it is on the decline. It contains 1709 inhabitants. Fayetteville, situated on the waters of Cape Fear, is the most commercial town in the state, and the principal market for tobacco. It has risen from the forest in the space of a few years, and now supplies a large part of the state with foreign merchandise. It contains near 2000 inhabitants. Windsor is an old town on Cushie river, rather on the decline, famous for shipping great quantities of

tar, pitch, and turpentine. Beaufort, in Carteret county, is situated on one of the only two good harbours in the state. Its entrance is defended by a fort, garrisoned by United States' troops. The town is about a mile long, but the houses are very much scattered, not amounting to more than 40 or 50. It carries on a considerable business in building small vessels, which for strength, durability and beauty, are seldom surpassed. Washington, in Beaufort county, is a thriving place, and has a busy trade. It owns nearly half the shipping belonging to the state. Salem, in Stokes county, is a handsome town, settled by the Moravians. Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hillsborough, Salisbury, and Fayetteville, have each in their turns been the seat of the general assembly. Raleigh, situate near the centre of the state, has been last established as the metropolis. The situation is pleasant and healthy. The state-house is a solid structure, and has some elegance. Its appearance has been lately improved by the addition of a steeple. The governor's residence is a mean looking, wooden building. It contains 976 inhabitants.

COLLEGE, ACADEMIES....The general assembly of North Carolina, in 1789, passed a law, incorporating forty gentlemen, five from each district, as trustees of the university of North Carolina. In 1791, they loaned the trustees 5000*l.* to enable them to proceed immediately with their buildings. The site they fixed upon was Chapel Hill, in Orange county, where they erected a college, which, from the title and powers of the board of trustees, has been usually, though improperly, denominated a university. It has a president, who is a professor of sciences, a professor of languages, and two inferior tutors. There are usually sixty or seventy students in the college, and half that number in a grammar school in the village, that is under the superintendence of the president. There is an academy at Raleigh, which has two handsome wooden buildings, one for male, and the other for female students. There are academies at Fayetteville, Warrenton, Louisburg, Ashville, Buncombe county; Wilkesborough, Springhill, Lenoir county; Westrayville, Nash county; Vinehill, Halifax county; Menfreesborough and Lumberton. There are also two academies in Caswell county, and one at Mineral Springs in Warren county. But the most flourishing academies in the state are at Newbern and Edenton. The funds of these are ample and permanent. The others have no certain means of support, and one that is flourishing this year will not be in existence the next. There is a female academy in Warrenton, which is said to be one of the best schools for young ladies in the United States. It has usually about 80 scholars. In Salem there is a young ladies boarding school, kept by the Moravians, on the same plan as the Moravian school at Bethlehem in Pennsylvania. It has about sixty students.

TRADE.....A great proportion of the produce of the back country, consisting of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, &c. is carried to market in South Carolina and Virginia. The southern interior counties carry their produce to Charleston, and the northern to Petersburg in Virginia. The exports from the lower parts of the state are tar, pitch, turpentine, rosin, Indian corn, boards, scantling, staves, shingles, furs, tobacco, pork, lard, tallow, bees-wax, myrtle-wax, and some other articles, amounting in the year, ending September 30th, 1791, to 324,548 dollars; in 1802, to 650,000; and in 1810, to 403,949. Their trade is chiefly with the West Indies and the northern states.

They manufacture iron wares, and cotton cloth for domestic consumption.

GOVERNMENT....The constitution of this state resembles that of Virginia. The executive authority is vested in a governor and council, who are elected annually by the legislature or general assembly. The governor must have resided in the state 5 years, and possess a freehold worth 1000*l*. He has the power to grant pardons, except for crimes prosecuted by the assembly; and to fill vacancies in office until the ensuing session of the assembly. He is liable to be impeached and prosecuted in a supreme court for mal-administration. The general assembly consists of a senate and house of commons. The members must be freeholders, and prove their residence in the state one year before the election, if required. Conjointly they make all laws, and appoint to all the important offices of the commonwealth, civil and military. The judges are appointed by the general assembly, and hold their commissions during good behaviour. The electors of the senate must be freeholders; but all residents of one year, who have paid taxes, may vote for members of the house of commons. The state sends 2 senators and 13 representatives to the general congress.

RELIGION....The methodists and baptists are numerous and increasing in North Carolina; the Moravians have several flourishing settlements in the upper part of this state; the friends or quakers have a settlement in New-Garden, in Guilford county, and several congregations at Perquimins and Pasquotank; and there are not a few presbyterian congregations. The Episcopalians who were the original settlers of North Carolina are reduced to a small number.

HISTORY....The first regular settlement was made in North Carolina in the year 1680, in Perquimons county, on the north side of Albemarle sound, by emigrants from Virginia, and there the first general assembly was held. Thence the population gradually flowed southwardly. A settlement was made at Newbern about the year 1720, by a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumstances of great indigence by a calamitous war. The infant colony remained under the general government of South Carolina till about the year 1729, when seven of the proprietors, for a valuable consideration, vested their property and jurisdiction in the crown; and the colony was erected into a separate province, by the name of North Carolina, and its present limits established by an order of George II. Lord Carteret, one of the original proprietors, chose to retain his right of one eighth; and in 1740 it was laid off for him, and described as extending from the latitude of 35° 34' to the southern limit of Virginia; and from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. North Carolina joined zealously in the war of independence, and sent 3 delegates to meet the general congress at Philadelphia in 1774.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		between { 32° and 35° 8' North latitude. 78° 24' and 83° 30' West longitude. }	Sq. Miles. 24,080
Length	250 }		
Breadth	170 }		

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS....Bounded by North Carolina on the north ; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east ; and on the south, south-west, and west, by the Atlantic Ocean, by the Savannah river, and a branch of its head waters, called Tugulo river, which divides this state from Georgia. South Carolina is divided into 28 districts, as follow :

Districts.	Population.	Districts.	Population.
Greenville,	13,133	York,	10,032
Charleston,	63,179	Chester,	11,479
Marion,	8,884	Union,	10,995
Colleton,	26,359	Spartenburgh,	14,259
Williamsburg,	6,871	Marlborough,	4,966
Orangeburgh,	13,229	Newberry,	13,964
Lexington,	6,641	Georgetown,	15,679
Richland,	9,027	Horry,	4,349
Fairfield,	11,857	Sumter,	19,054
Lancaster,	6,318	Pendleton,	22,897
Kershaw,	9,867	Darlington,	9,047
Abbeville,	21,156	Chesterfield,	5,564
Edgefield,	23,160	Barnwell,	12,280
Laurens,	14,982	Beaufort,	25,887

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS....Except the high hills of Santee, the Ridge, and some few other hills, this country is almost one extensive plain, till you reach the Tryon and Hog-back mountains, 220 miles north-west of Charleston. The elevation of these mountains above their base is 3840 feet, and above the sea-coast 4640. Their summit affords an extensive view of this state, North Carolina and Georgia. The sea-coast is bordered with a chain of fine islands, the soil of which is generally better adapted to the culture of indigo and cotton than the main land, and less suited to rice. The whole state, to the distance of eighty or a hundred miles from the sea, is low and level, almost without a pebble ; but the country, as you advance in it, improves continually ; and at 100 miles distance from Charleston, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpose of human life ; nor can any thing be imagined more pleasant to the eye than the variegated disposi-

tion of this back country. Here the air is pure and wholesome, and the summer heat much more temperate than on the flat sandy coast.

RIVERS AND CANALS....South Carolina is watered by many navigable rivers, the principal of which are the Savannah, Edisto, Santee, Pedee, and their branches. The Santee is the largest river in the state. Those of a secondary size are the Wakamaw, Black, Cooper, Ashly, Wando, Stono, Asheppo, Coosaw, Broad, and Combahee rivers. A canal of twenty-two miles in length, connects Cooper and Santee rivers; it cost 650,600 dollars. Another canal is in contemplation, to unite the Edisto with the Ashley.

METALS, MINERALS....South Carolina abounds with various ores, such as lead, black-lead, copper, and iron. There are likewise rock-crystal, pyrites, marble beautifully variegated, abundance of chalk, red and yellow ochres, asbestos, slate, soap-stone, white flint, nitre and emery.

CLIMATE AND AIR....The climate of South Carolina does not differ much from that of North Carolina and Virginia. The heat is of longer continuance. But the weather, as in all this part of America, is subject to sudden transitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat, but not to such violent extremities as in Virginia. The winters are seldom severe enough to freeze any considerable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the frosts have never sufficient strength to resist the noon day sun, so that many tender plants, which do not stand the winter in Virginia, flourish in South Carolina; they have oranges near Charleston, excellent in their kinds, both sweet and sour. This fruit was once very abundant, but the climate does not appear so favourable to its growth as formerly. The salubrity of the air is different in different parts of the state. Along the sea coast, bilious diseases, and fevers of various kinds, are prevalent between July and October; one cause of which is the low marshy country, which is overflowed for the sake of cultivating rice. The upper country, situate in the medium between extreme heat and cold, is as healthful as any part of the United States.

SOIL AND PRODUCE....The soil of South Carolina may be divided into four kinds: first, the pine barren, which is valuable only for its timber. Interspersed among the pine barrens are tracts of land free of timber, and every kind of growth but that of grass. These tracts are called savannas, constituting a second kind of soil, proper for grazing. The third kind is that of the swamps and low grounds on the rivers, which is a mixture of black loam and fat clay, producing, naturally, canes in great plenty, cypress bays, pines, &c. In these swamps rice is cultivated, which, with cotton, constitutes the staple commodity of the state. The high lands, commonly known by the name of oak and hickory lands, constitute the fourth kind of soil. The natural growth is oak, hickory, walnut, pine, and locust. On these lands, in the low country, Indian corn is principally cultivated; and in the back country, likewise, they raise tobacco in large quantities, wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, and cotton. From experiments which have been made, it is well ascertained that olives, silk, and madder, may be as abundantly produced in South Carolina, and we may add in Georgia also, as in the south of France. There is little fruit in this state, especially in the lower parts of it. They have oranges, chiefly sour, and figs in plenty; a few limes and lemons,

pomegranates, pears, and peaches : apples are scarce, and are imported from the northern states ; melons, especially water-melons, are raised here in great perfection.

In South Carolina vegetation is incredibly quick. The climate and the soil have something in them so kindly, that the latter, when left to itself, naturally throws out an immense quantity of flowers and flowering shrubs. All the European plants arrive at a perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement, silk, wine, and oil, might be produced in this state. Wheat in the back parts yields a prodigious increase.

From what we have observed, it appears that the vegetable productions of this state are cotton, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peas, beans, hemp, flax, tobacco, indigo, olives, oranges, citron, cypress, sassafras, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine trees ; white mulberry trees for feeding silk-worms ; sarsaparilla, and pines, which yield turpentine, rosin, tar, and pitch. There are other trees besides these, that yield gums.

The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent spirits, and mead as good as Malaga sack. The three great staple commodities at present are cotton, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing surprises an European more at first sight than the size of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from fifty to seventy feet high, without a branch or limb ; and frequently above thirty-six feet in circumference. Of these trunks when hollowed, the people of Charleston, as well as the Indians, make canoes, which serve to transport provisions from place to place ; and some of them are so large, that they will carry thirty or forty barrels of pitch, though formed of one piece of timber. Of these are likewise made curious pleasure boats. There is also a variety of medicinal roots : the snake root, pink root, &c.

ANIMALS....The original Animals of this country do not differ much from those of Virginia ; but in both the Carolinas they have a still greater variety of beautiful birds. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty ; black cattle are multiplied prodigiously ; to have 200 or 300 is very common, but some have 1000 or upwards.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....The number of inhabitants in South Carolina, in 1790, was 249,073, including 107,094 slaves. In 1801, according to the census then taken, they amounted to 345,591, including 146,151 slaves ; and in 1810, to 415,115, including 196,365 slaves. The militia may be stated at 30,000 men.

CHIEF TOWNS....The principal towns of South Carolina are, Charleston, Georgetown, Columbia, Beaufort, Statesburgh, Pineville, and Camden. Charleston is by far the most considerable town on the sea-coast for an extent of 600 miles. It is the metropolis of South Carolina, and is admirably situate at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ships twenty miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near forty. The harbour is good in every respect, but that of a bar, which hinders vessels of more than 200 tons burden, laden, from entering. The fortifications, which were strong, are now demolished ; the streets are well cut ; the houses are large and well built ; some of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handsome ; rent is extremely high. The streets are wide and straight, intersecting each

other at right angles ; those running east and west extend about a mile from one river to the other. The public edifices are an exchange, a state-house, a bank, an armory, a public alms-house, an orphan house, and sixteen places of religious worship. In 1787, it was computed that there were 1600 houses in this city, and 15,000 inhabitants, including 5400 slaves. In 1800, there were 18,824 inhabitants, of whom near one half were slaves ; and in 1810, 24,711, of whom 11,671 were slaves. This city has often suffered much by fire : one very destructive happened in June 1796. The last, in which 400 houses were burned, happened in 1810. The neighbourhood of Charleston is beautiful beyond description. Georgetown contains about 2000 inhabitants.

Columbia is a small town in Kershaw county, on the east side of the Congaree, just below the confluence of the Saluda and Broad rivers. It is now the seat of government ; but the public offices have, in some measure, been divided for the accommodation of the inhabitants of the lower counties, and a branch of each retained in Charleston.

TRADE....The little attention that has been paid to manufactures occasions a vast consumption of foreign imported articles ; but the quantity and value of their exports generally leave a balance in favour of the state. The principal articles exported from this state are cotton, rice, indigo, tobacco, skins of various kinds, beef, pork, pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, myrtle-wax, lumber, naval stores, cork, leather, snake-root, and ginseng. In the most successful seasons, there have been as many as 140,000 barrels of rice, and 1,300,000 pounds of indigo, exported in a year. The cultivation of the latter article is now much neglected, it having been superceded by cotton. In 1791, the exports from this state amounted to 1,693,267 dollars ; in 1795, to 5,998,492 dollars ; in 1802, to 10,690,000 dollars ; and in 1811, to 4,861,279 dollars.

GOVERNMENT....The government of South Carolina, as in the other states, is administered by three branches, executive, legislative, and judiciary. The executive power is vested in a governor and lieutenant governor, both chosen by the legislature for two years. The qualifications required in these magistrates are a residence of ten years, the age of 30 years, and an estate worth 6600 dollars. Their powers are not extensive. They have no negative or suspensive power in the passing of laws, and make but few appointments. They may remit fines, and grant reprieves or pardons in certain cases. The legislative, or supreme power of making laws, is lodged in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives, both elected by the people ; the senate for four years, with a biennial rotation of one half, and the representatives for two years. They grant money, lay taxes, and make most of the important appointments to office. The judiciary are appointed by the general assembly, hold their commissions during good behaviour, and receive certain stated salaries while in office. A residence of two years, a freehold of 50 acres, a town lot, or the payment of a tax amounting to three shillings, entitle to a right of voting at elections.

RELIGION....Since the revolution, by which all denominations were put on an equal footing, there have been no disputes between different religious sects. The upper parts of this state are settled chiefly by presbyterians, baptists, and methodists. There are some episcopalians, but the presbyterians and independants are most numerous.

COLLEGES AND ACADEMIES....The literature of this state is not very flourishing. There are several respectable academies in Charleston, one at Beaufort, on Port-Royal island, and several others in different parts of the state. Three colleges have been incorporated by law; one at Charleston, one at Winnsborough, in the district of Camden, and the other at Cambridge in the district of Ninety-six. The legislature, in their session in January 1795, appointed a committee to inquire into the practicability of, and to report a plan for, the establishment of schools in the different parts of the state. In 1801, they passed a law for building a college at the seat of government, by the name of the *South Carolina College*. Its affairs are regulated by a board of trustees. It has a president, three professors, and two tutors. The institution is now flourishing.

HISTORY...The first English expeditions into Carolina were unfortunate. None of them had success till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time several English noblemen, and others of great distinction, obtained a charter from the crown, investing them with the property and jurisdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to such as were willing to go over into the new settlement, and to submit to a system of laws which they employed the famous Locke to compose for them in 1672.

They began their first settlement at a point of land towards the southward of their district, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city called Charleston, which was designed to be, what it is now, the capital of the province. In 1690 the cultivation of rice was first attempted. At an early period the disputes between the church of England men and dissenters caused a total confusion in the colony. This was rendered still more intolerable by the incursions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their insolence and injustice. In order to prevent the fatal consequences of these intestine divisions and foreign wars, an act of Parliament was passed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown in 1720. The lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about 24,000*l.* for both the property and jurisdiction; and the constitution of this colony, in those respects in which it differed from the royal colonies, was altered. Earl Grenville, however, thought fit to retain his seventh share, which continued in the possession of his family. For the more convenient administration of affairs, South Carolina was divided into two districts, and two governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time, peace being restored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, these provinces began to breathe, and their trade advanced with wonderful rapidity. In 1745 indigo was found to be a native plant, and first cultivated. In 1761 a whirlwind happened in May, which laid bare the channel of Ashley river, swept the loftiest trees before it like chaff, and destroyed a considerable number of vessels in the harbour. Charleston was taken by the British forces under sir H. Clinton in 1780, and evacuated by them in 1782.

GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 300	} between	{ 80° 20' and 85° 54' West longitude. 30° 42' and 35° North latitude.	62,000
Breadth 250			

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS....Bounded by the Carolinas and Tennessee on the north and north-east; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east; by East Florida, on the south; and by the Mississippi territory on the west. Georgia was formerly divided into parishes, and afterwards into three, but lately into four districts, the eastern, middle, northern and southern, which are subdivided into 38 counties, as follows :

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Camden,	3,941	St. Mary's.
Glynn,	3,417	Brunswick.
Liberty,	6,228	Sunbury.
Chatham,	13,540	SAVANNAH } N. lat. 32° 3'. W. long. 28° 24'.
Burke,	10,858	Waynesborough.
Effingham,	2,586	Ebenezer.
M'Intosh,	3,739	Darien.
Scriven,	4,477	Jacksonborough.
Bryan,	2,827	Hardwick.
Richmond,	6,189	Augusta.
Washington,	9,940	Saundersville.
Wilkes,	14,887	Washington.
Greene,	11,679	Greensborough.
Franklin,	10,815	Carnesville.
Montgomery,	2,954	
Hancock,	13,330	Sparta.
Oglethorpe,	12,297	Lexington.
Elbert,	12,156	Petersburg.
Lincoln,	4,555	Goshen.
Warren,	8,725	Warrenton.
Jefferson,	6,111	Louisville.
Jackson,	10,569	Jefferson.
Bulloch,	2,305	
Columbia,	11,242	
Wayne,	676	
Walton,	1,026	
Clarke,	7,628	Athens.
Tatnall,	2,206	

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Telfair,	744	
Pulaski,	2,093	
Laurens,	2,210	
Twiggs,	3,405	
Wilkinson,	2,154	
Baldwin,	6,556	MILLEDGEVILLE.
Jones,	8,597	Clinton.
Putnam,	10,029	Eatonton.
Morgan,	8,369	Madison.
Randolph,	7,573	Monticello.

ISLANDS AND RIVERS....The whole coast of Georgia is bordered with islands, the principal of which are Tybee, Wassaw, Ossahaw, St. Catharine's, Sapelo, Jekyl, and Cumberland. On St. Simon's island is the town of Frederica, one of the first towns built in this state. The chief rivers of Georgia are the Savannah, which separates it from South Carolina, the Ogechce, Alatomaha, Turtle River, Little Satilla, Great Satilla, St. Mary's, Apalachicola and Flint. The Alabama rises in Georgia. The Chatahouchy has its source in this state, and afterwards forms the boundary between it and Mississippi territory. The smaller streams are numerous.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE....The climate of Georgia resembles that of South Carolina: the winters there are very mild and pleasant. Snow is seldom or never seen; nor is vegetation often prevented by severe frosts. The soil and its fertility are various, according to situation and different improvements. The eastern part of the state, between the mountains and the ocean, and the rivers Savannah and St. Mary's, a tract of country more than 120 miles from north to south, and from 50 to 80 east and west, is level, without a hill or stone. At the distance of about 40 or 50 miles from the sea board or salt marsh, the lands begin to be more or less uneven, until they gradually rise to mountains. The vast chain of the Allegheny, or Apalachian mountains, which commence with Kaats Kill, near Hudson river, in the state of New York, terminate in Georgia, sixty miles south of its northern boundary. From the foot of this mountain spreads a wide extended plain of the richest soil, and in a latitude and climate well adapted to the cultivation of most of the productions of the south of Europe, and of the East Indies. Cotton and rice are at present the staple commodities of the state; tobacco, wheat, and indigo, are the other great articles of produce. Besides these, the country yields silk, Indian corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, olives, and pomegranates. Most of the tropical fruits would flourish in this state with proper attention. The south-western parts of Georgia, and the parts of East and West Florida which lie adjoining, will probably, says Dr. Morse, become the vineyard of America. The forests consist of oak, hickory, mulberry, pine, and cedar.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....The number of inhabitants in Georgia, according to the census of 1790, amounted to 82,548, of whom 29,264 were slaves. The increase by emigration has been very considerable since. In 1801, according to the census then taken, they amounted to 162,684, including 59,404 slaves; and in 1810, they amounted to 252,433, including 105,218 slaves. The militia has been stated at 25,700.

CHIEF TOWNS....The principal towns in Georgia, are Savannah, Augusta, Louisville, Sunbury, Milledgeville, Athens, Frederica, St. Mary's, Darien, and Petersburg. Savannah, the commercial capital of the state, is commodiously situate both for inland and foreign trade, seventeen miles from the sea, on a noble river of the same name, which is navigable for boats upwards of 200 miles. Ships of 300 tons burden can lie within six yards of the town, and close to a steep bank, extending near a mile along the river side. The town is regularly built, in the form of a parallelogram, and contained, in 1810, 5215 inhabitants. In the autumn of 1796 more than two thirds of this town was consumed by fire.

Augusta, once the seat of government, is situate in a fertile plain on the south-west bank of the Savannah river, at a bend of the river, where it is nearly 500 yards broad. In 1810, it contained about 2476 inhabitants.

Louisville, till lately the metropolis of the state, is situate on the river Ogeechee, seventy miles from its mouth. The convention for the revisal of the constitution sat in this town in May 1795. It contains 524 inhabitants, including slaves.

Milledgeville, the present seat of government, is situated on the river Oconee, 160 miles from Savannah, and 80 west from Augusta. The state house is a fine building. The number of inhabitants is 1246.

TRADE....The chief articles of export from Georgia are cotton, rice, tobacco, indigo, sago, timber, naval stores, leather, deer skins, snake-root, myrtle, and bees' wax, corn, and live stock. The planters and farmers raise large stocks of cattle, from 1000 to 1500 head, and some more. The value in sterling money of the exports of Georgia, in 1755, was 15,744*l*. in 1772, 121,677*l*. in 1791, value in dollars 491,472; in 1796, 950,158 dollars, in 1802, 1,854,951 dollars, and in 1811, 2,568,866 dollars. In 1790, the tonnage employed in this state was 28,540, and the number of American seamen 11,325. In return for her exports, Georgia receives West India goods, teas, wines, clothing, and dry goods of all kinds: from the northern states, cheese, fish, potatoes, cyder, and shoes. The imports and exports are principally to and from Savannah, which has a fine harbour, and is the place where the principal commercial business of the state is transacted.

GOVERNMENT....The government of Georgia is much like that of South Carolina; the principal difference is that the governor and council have a qualified negative on the laws, and the legislature is elected annually.

RELIGION....The different religious sects in Georgia are presbyterians, episcopalians, baptists, and methodists. They have but few regular ministers among them. In fact religion is at a low ebb, although its propagation was a leading motive with the generous founders of the colony.

COLLEGES AND ACADEMIES....The literature of this state, which is yet in its infancy, is commencing on a plan, which, if properly carried into effect, must be attended with great advantages. A college with ample and liberal endowments has been instituted at Louisville. There is also provision made for the institution of an academy in each county of the state, to be supported from the same funds, and considered as parts and members of the same institution, under the general superintendence and direction of a president and board of

trustees, selected for their literary accomplishments from the different parts of the state, and invested with the customary powers of corporations. This institution is denominated 'The University of Georgia.' The funds for the support of literary institutions are principally in lands, amounting in the whole to 50,000 acres, a great part of which is of the best quality, and at present very valuable: together with nearly 30,000 dollars, in bonds, houses, and town lots in Augusta. Other public property, to the amount of 1000%. in each county, has been set apart for the purposes of building, and furnishing their respective academies.

The Rev. Mr. George Whitfield founded an orphan house at Savannah, which, after his death, was converted into a college for the education of young men designed chiefly for the ministry. The funds for its support are chiefly in rice plantations and negroes. On the death of the countess of Huntingdon, to whom Mr. Whitfield bequeathed this property as trustee, the legislature, in the year 1792, passed a law vesting it in 13 commissioners, with powers to carry the original intention of Mr. Whitfield into execution; and in memory of the countess, the seminary is styled Huntingdon college.

HISTORY....The settlement of Georgia was projected in 1732; when several public spirited noblemen, and others, subscribed a considerable sum, which, with 10,000%. from the government, was given to provide necessaries for such poor persons as were willing to transport themselves into this province, and to submit to the regulations imposed on them. In process of time, new sums were raised and new inhabitants sent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 persons were settled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected, that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed, as they were, at a great distance from their benefactors, and from the check and control of those who had a natural influence over them, would submit to the magistrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themselves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increased in number and opulence, they thought it hard they should be deprived of. From these corrupt sources arose all the bad humours which tore to pieces this constitution of government. Dissensions of all kinds sprang up, and the colony was on the brink of destruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the same footing with the Carolinas; the original trustees having surrendered their charter to the crown.

TENNESSEE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
 Length 400 } between { 79° 38' and 88° 38' West longitude.
 Breadth 105 } { 35° and 36° 30' North latitude.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.....Bounded north by Kentucky, and part of Virginia; east, by North Carolina; south by the Mississippi territory and Georgia; west by the Mississippi river, which separates it from Missouri territory.

This extensive territory is divided into five districts; Washington, Hamilton, Winchester, Robertson, and Mero; and thirty-eight counties, as follows:

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Washington,	7,740	Jonesborough.
Sullivan,	6,847	Blountville.
Greene,	9,713	Greenville.
Carter,	4,190	Elizabethtown.
Hawkins,	7,643	Rogersville.
Knox,	10,171	Knoxville.
Jefferson,	7,309	Dandridge.
Sevier,	4,595	Sevierville.
Blount,	8,839	Maryville.
Grainger,	6,397	Rutledge.
Davidson,	15,608	Nashville.
Sumner,	13,792	Gallatin.
Robertson,	7,270	Springfield.
Montgomery,	8,021	Clarksville.
Cocke,	5,154	Newport.
Claiborne,	4,798	Tazewell.
Campbell,	2,668	
Anderson,	3,959	Powellsville.
Roane,	5,381	Kingston.
Rhea,	2,504	
Bedford,	8,242	
Dickson,	4,516	
Franklin,	5,730	
Giles,	4,546	
Hickman,	2,583	
Humphreys,	1,511	
Jackson,	5,401	Williamson.
Lincoln,	6,104	

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Maury,	10,359	Columbia.
Overton,	5,643	Monroe.
Rutherford,	10,265	Jefferson.
Smith,	11,649	
Stewart,	4,262	
Wilson,	11,952	Lebanon.
Williamson,	13,153	Franklin.
White,	4,028	Sparta.
Warren,	5,725	Macminville.
Bledsoe,	3,259	

Tennessee is naturally divided by the Cumberland mountain, into East and West Tennessee.

MOUNTAINS....The Cumberland mountain, in its whole extent from the great Kanhawa to the Tennessee, consists of the most stupendous piles of craggy rocks of any mountain in the western country. In several parts of it, for miles, it is inaccessible, even to the Indians on foot. In one place particularly, near the summit of the mountain, there is a most remarkable ledge of rocks, of about thirty miles in length, and 200 feet thick, showing a perpendicular face to the south-east, more noble and grand than any artificial fortification in the known world, and apparently equal in point of regularity. Through this stupendous pile, according to a modern hypothesis, had the waters of all the upper branches of the Tennessee to force their way.

RIVERS..The Tennessee, Holston, Watauga, French Broad, Pigeon, Nolachucky, Clinch, Powell's, Hiwassee, Cumberland, Oby, Cany Fork, Holly, Rocky, Falling-water, Collin's, Stone, Harpath, Red, Elk, Duck, Wolf, Hatchee, Forked Deer, Obion, and Reelfoot rivers, are the principal streams of Tennessee. Most of them take their source in the neighbouring states. The Tennessee and Cumberland pass through a part of Kentucky, to the Ohio. The other rivers are all tributaries to these two principal streams, excepting the Wolf, Hatchee, Forked Deer, Obion, and Reelfoot, which fall into the Mississippi.

METALS AND MINERALS....Iron ore abounds in the districts of Washington and Mero. Several lead mines have been discovered. It is said that gold has been found here, but the place where is not known. Ores and springs strongly impregnated with sulphur are found in various parts. Copperas, alum, saltpetre, slate, flint, coal, limestone, and marble, are found in various parts of the state.

CLIMATE. SOIL, AND PRODUCE....The climate of Tennessee is temperate and healthful: the summers are very cool and pleasant in that part which is contiguous to the mountains that divide this state from North Carolina; but on the western side of the Cumberland mountains the heat is more intense, which renders that part better calculated for the production of tobacco, cotton, and indigo. The soil of East Tennessee is light, that of West Tennessee is in general luxuriant, and will afford every production which is the growth of any of the United States. The usual crop of cotton is 800 lbs. to the acre, of a long and fine staple; and of corn from 60 to 80 bushels.*

ANIMALS....A few years since, this country abounded with large herds of bisons, improperly called buffaloes; but this animal is

not now to be found east of the Mississippi. Elk or moose are seen in many places, chiefly among the mountains. The deer are become comparatively scarce, so that no person makes a business of hunting them for their skins only. Enough of bears and wolves yet remain. Beavers and otters are caught in plenty in the upper branches of Cumberland and Kentucky rivers.

CURIOSITIES....The Enchanted Mountain, about two miles south of Brass-town, is famed for the curiosities on its rocks. There are, in several rocks, a number of impressions resembling the tracks of turkeys, bears, horses, and human beings, as visible and perfect as they could be made in snow or sand. The latter were remarkable for having uniformly six toes each, one only excepted, which appeared to be the print of a negro's foot. One of these tracts was very large; the length of the feet sixteen inches, the distance of the extremities of the outer toes thirteen inches. One of the horse tracts was of an uncommon size. The transverse and conjugate diameters were eight by ten inches; perhaps the horse which the great warrior rode. What appears most in favour of their being the real tracts of the animals they represent, is the circumstance of the horse's feet having slipt several inches, and recovered again, and the figures having all the same direction, like the trail of a company on a journey. If it be a *lusus naturæ*, the old dame never sported more seriously: if the operation of chance, perhaps there was never more apparent design. If it be the work of art, it may be intended to perpetuate the remembrance of some remarkable event of war, or some battle fought there. The vast heaps of stones near the place, said to be tombs of warriors slain in battle, seem to favour the latter supposition. The texture of the rocks is soft: the part on which the sun had the greatest influence, and which was the most indurated, could easily be cut with a knife, and appeared to be of the nature of the pipe-stone. Some of the Cherokees entertain an opinion that it always rains when any person visits the place, as if sympathetic nature wept at the recollection of the dreadful catastrophe which these figures were intended to commemorate.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....The population of this state in November 1795, was estimated at 77,262. By the census taken in 1800, it was found to have increased to 105,602, including 13,584 slaves. In 1810, the population was 261,727, including 44,535 slaves. The militia is about 16,000.

CHIEF TOWNS....Knoxville is the seat of government in Tennessee. It is regularly laid out, in a flourishing situation, and enjoys a communication with every part of the United States by post. It contains about 200 houses. The other principal towns are Nashville and Jonesborough.

TRADE....This country furnishes many valuable articles of export, such as fine waggon and saddle horses, beef, cattle, ginseng, deer-skins, and furs, cotton, hemp, and flax, which may be transported by land; also iron, lumber, pork, and flour, which are exported to New Orleans.

GOVERNMENT....In 1785, in conformity to the resolves of congress, of April 23, 1784, the inhabitants of this district attempted to form themselves into a body politic by the name of the State of Frankland; but differing among themselves, as to the form of government, and other matters, in the issue of which some blood was shed, and being opposed by some leading persons in the eastern parts, the scheme

was given up, and the inhabitants remained in general peaceable until 1796, when a convention was held at Knoxville, and on the 6th of February the constitution of the state of Tennessee was signed by every member of it. Its principles promise to ensure the happiness and prosperity of the people, being framed much like the constitutions already noticed, consisting of a single executive magistrate, and a legislature of two branches. Their duration in office is for two years. The judiciary, as in most of the other states, hold their commissions during good behaviour. None but freeholders can vote at elections.

RELIGION....The presbyterians are the prevailing denomination of Christians in this district. They have a presbytery, called the Abingdon presbytery, established by act of synod, which, in 1788, consisted of twenty-three large congregations. There are many methodists, and some baptists.

COLLEGES....Besides private schools there are three colleges established by law: Greenville college in Green's county; Blount college at Knoxville, and Washington college in the county of that name. Here is likewise a society for promoting useful knowledge.

HISTORY..The eastern parts of this district were explored by colonels Wood, Patton, Buchanan, captain Charles Campbell, and Dr. T. Walker (each of whom were concerned in large grants of land from the government) as early as between the years 1740 and 1750. In 1755, at the commencement of the French war, about fifty families had settled here, who were either destroyed or driven off by the Indians before the close of the following year. It remained uninhabited till 1765, when the settlement of it recommenced; and, in 1773, the country as far west as the long island of Holstein, an extent of more than 120 miles in length from east to west, had become tolerably well peopled. In 1780, a party of about 40 families, under the guidance and direction of James Robertson (afterwards brigadier-general Robertson of Mero district) passed through a wilderness of at least 300 miles, and founded Nashville. Their nearest neighbours were the settlers of the infant state of Kentucky, between whom and them was a wilderness of 200 miles. This territory then appertained to North Carolina, which, in 1789, ceded it to the United States on certain conditions, and congress provided for its government. In 1796, as above mentioned, it was admitted into the Federal union, as a member of the United States.

OHIO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length 225	} between	{ 38° 10' and 42° North latitude.	} 39,000
Breadth 200		{ 80° 30' and 85° 45' West longitude.	

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS....This extensive tract of country is bounded, north, by lake Erie and Michigan territory; east, by lake Erie, Virginia, and Pennsylvania; south, by Kentucky; and west, by Indiana territory. The river Ohio separates it from Virginia and Kentucky.

It is divided into 42 counties, viz.

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Astabula,*		Jefferson.
Geauga,	2,917	Newmarket.
Cayahoga,	1,459	Cleveland.
Huron,		Huron.
Portage,	2,995	Ravenna.
Trumbull,	8,671	Warren.
Columbiana,	10,878	New Lisbon.
Starke,	2,734	Canton.
Wayne,		Woorster.
Richland,		Mansfield.
Jefferson,	17,260	Steubenville.
Tuscarawas,	2,845	New Philadelphia.
Coshocton,	2,200	Coshocton.
Knox,	2,149	Mountvernon.
Delaware,	2,000	Delaware.
Madison,	1,603	London.
Fayette,	1,854	Washington.
Fairfield,	11,361	New Lancaster.
Muskingum,	8,036	Zanesville.
Guernsey,	3,051	
Belmont,	11,097	St. Claresville.
Washington,	5,991	Marietta.
Athens,	2,791	Athens.
Ross,	15,514	Chillicothe.
Scioto,	3,399	Alexandria.
Gallia,	4,181	Galliopolis.
Adams,	9,434	Westunion.
Highland,	5,766	Hillsborough:

* Those counties whose population is left blank, have been formed since the census of 1810.

Counties.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Clinton,	2,674	Wilmington.
Franklin,	3,486	Franklinton.
Clermont,	9,965	Williamsburg.
Warren,	9,925	Lebanon.
Green,	5,870	Xenia.
Champaign,	6,303	Urbana.
Miami,	3,941	Troy.
Darke,		Greenville.
Preble,	3,304	Eaton.
Montgomery,	7,722	Dayton.
Butler,	11,150	Hamilton.
Hamilton,	15,258	Cincinnati.
Licking,	3,852	Newark.
Pickaway,	7,124	Circleville.

RIVERS....The Muskingham is a gentle river, confined by banks so high as to prevent its overflowing. It is 250 yards wide at its confluence with the Ohio, and navigable by large bateaux and barges 110 miles, to the Three Legs, and by small ones to the lake at its head. The Hockhocking resembles the Muskingham, though somewhat inferior in size. It is navigable 70 miles. The Sciota is a larger river than either of the preceding, and opens a more extensive navigation. Its current is generally gentle. It is bordered by some of the richest flats in the state, which are often inundated by the spring freshes. It is navigable to Franklinton for keel boats, of 10 tons, and those of less burden ascend it, near 200 miles, to a landing only four miles distant from the river Sandusky of lake Erie. The Sciota has many tributary streams. The Great and Little Miami are considerable streams. These rivers all discharge their waters into the Ohio. The Warpee, Miami of the Lake, Sandusky, and Huron, are all large rivers discharging into lake Erie. The smaller rivers of lake Erie are, the Black, Portage, Vermillion, Rock, Cayahoga, Elk, Grand, Ebouille, and Coneaut.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL....The Ohio river washes the southern border of this state for more than 400 miles. Its valley is from a half, to two miles in width, and the river in most of its course flows obliquely from one range of hills to the other. Hence the interval or bottom lands are generally, on either side of the river, alternately wide and narrow. Most of these bottoms are so high as not to be overflowed except by extraordinary floods. They are generally highest near the river, declining gently to the hill. Their composition is loam, with beds of clay, sand, and, in many places, immense strata of gravel and pebbles; the whole covered with a thick layer of mould—the accumulated recrements of successive crops of vegetables. Most of the other rivers and small streams, except in the south-east portions of the state, have formed similar vallies. The ascent from the interval grounds of the Ohio to the uplands is perhaps on an average 300 feet. These uplands in the south-east quarter of the state are for 30 or 40 miles back from the river, too hilly for easy cultivation; but are said to be sufficiently fertile to form good pastures. In the south-west quarter, the belt of hills is generally narrow, and many fine farms already overlook the Ohio. The middle and northern portions of the state are level. The region common to the waters of the Ohio and the lake is remarkable for its flatness and total exemp-

tion from all considerable hills. This formation of surface has, in many places, produced swamps and marshes, but few or none are of such extent and depth as not to be drained, when the increase of population shall render it necessary. The middle of the state, nearly from the eastern to the western boundaries, is champaign. The prairies, generally, are not many square miles in extent; they now and then appear solitary, with well defined boundaries, being surrounded by thick woods, but they are oftener broken and interrupted by clumps of oak and other forest trees. These prairies seem to have been woodlands on which the primitive forest trees were burnt. Prairies are rarely seen nearer than 40 miles from the Ohio; but in the vicinity of lake Erie and along most of its rivers they are common. No sandy or rocky tracts of any considerable extent are found in any part of the state, and the whole may be considered fit either for cultivation, pasturage or timber. The surface of the ground is in most parts sufficiently irrigated with permanent springs, rivulets, and mill streams; and where the former are wanting, good water can be obtained by digging from 20 to 50 feet, which, from the structure of the earth underneath, is easily done.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS AND DOMESTIC ANIMALS....The dry, fertile prairies, yield all the products of the farm, which require a rich soil, in great abundance. The wet fertile prairies form inexhaustible meadows and pastures. The poor prairies, or barrens, are said to produce good wheat and rye. Many tracts of forest land are too rich for wheat, but yield vast crops of Indian corn. The first rate wood lands, after a little reduction, and all the second rate land that is not too wet, afford profitable crops of wheat and rye. Oats succeed well when too luxuriant a growth does not cause them to be blown down by gales of wind. Flax is generally good. The bottoms or intervals afford vast crops of hemp, an article not yet, however, much cultivated. Barley does well, and in the western part of the state begins to attract attention. White and red clover and timothy grow luxuriantly. The first has sprung up spontaneously in all places that have been cleared and trodden for some time. Cotton will generally succeed in the southern part of the state, and has even ripened on lake Erie, but little of it is however planted. The various kinds of esculent roots, which are objects of agriculture and horticulture in the middle Atlantic states, are generally and advantageously cultivated. Grapes (*vitis vinifera*) from the few experiments that have been made, flourish and bear well; which might be expected, as this state has three indigenous species of the vine. Apples, peaches, and pears, are pretty certain fruit along the Ohio and lake Erie; and do not often fail on the uplands, if planted in proper situations. Many thousand gallons of cider and peach brandy are annually made. Cherries and quinces succeed well.

All the domestic animals common to the middle and eastern sections of the union have been introduced and thrive in this state. In the north-east quarter milch cows are numerous, and considerable quantities of butter and cheese are annually exported down the Ohio. The prairies afford advantageous pastures for beef cattle, herds of which, have, for several years past, been driven to the Atlantic cities. Hogs grow up, and even become fat, on the numerous nutritious roots, in which the prairies abound, and on the beech nuts and acorns of the woods. They have for some time past been an object of exportation to the Philadelphia and Baltimore markets. Sheep come

to great perfection. The mutton is even said to surpass that of the maritime districts. Several hundred merinos have already been introduced. They suffer no depreciation, and are rapidly spreading over the state.

CLIMATE....The great geographical extent of this state necessarily gives it a diversified climate. In most parts few or no meteorological observations have yet been made. Along the Ohio river the summers are hot, the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer rising several times to more than 90° every year. It has once or twice been observed at 98°. That region, it has been asserted, is as warm as the Atlantic states, three degrees further south; but recent observations make the difference at least two-thirds less. The winters of that tract are sometimes severe for its latitude. At Cincinnati the mercury annually falls to *cipher* several times, and has within seven years been observed 8, 10, and 11 degrees below that point. The snows are not, however, either deep or durable. They seldom exceed five inches, and the Ohio, between the Muskingum and Great Miami, is not often frozen over. The winters towards the northern boundary of the state are much more severe and protracted. Snow frequently falls a foot, and sometimes two feet deep. A local influence is also observed to be exerted by the lake, in rendering the spring more backward, and the autumn more protracted, than at the distance of 15 or 20 miles in the interior. On the waters of the Ohio river, the south-west wind prevails two-thirds of the year, or 8 months out of 12. In the other 4 months, the north-west, north-east, and south-east, prevailing in the order in which they are mentioned, are the principal winds. In the same region, the last vernal frosts are generally at the close of the first week in May, sometimes as late as the middle of that month, but such are commonly too mild to injure vegetation. The earliest autumnal frosts occur soon after the equinox or before the middle of October. An unusual degree of atmospheric moisture is said to prevail in this state; this is perhaps true only of the marshes and level woodlands. The number of entirely fair days in the southern part of the state, is in each year about 170, which is less than in the Atlantic states.

ANIMALS....The bison and elk, once common in this state, have now disappeared. The bear is but seldom seen. Deer are more common but not numerous in the settled parts. Wolves infest only the frontiers. The painter or panther is extremely rare. The wild cat is oftener seen. The beaver is not now to be seen in the peopled, and rarely in the unsettled portion of the state; it was formerly found in every part. The racoon is a common animal in all but the most populous settlements, and frequently proves destructive to the Indian corn. In severe winters it is observed to subsist on cranberries. Three species or varieties of the fox were once plenty, but are now rare. Of the smaller quadrupeds the grey squirrel is most common and very destructive to the Indian corn. A law calculated to promote the killing of this animal was once in force in this state. The squirrel performs occasional migrations to and from Kentucky, perhaps in quest of food. At these times vast numbers are killed immediately after crossing the Ohio river. A species of *mus*, probably the *mus terrestris* or field mouse, appeared in immense numbers in the western parts of this state in 1810, and did great damage to the wheat, rye, potatoes, and some other vegetables.

Of resident birds the wild turkey is the largest. At certain seasons large flocks make their appearance in the populous settlements. These birds formed an important article of food to the early emigrants, and are now frequently met with in the markets. The ruffed grouse, generally called pheasant, is a pretty common bird. Quails are numerous. Birds of the grallons or wading tribe are said to be abundant, but no new species have yet been described. The robin is common in the western part of the state. The paroquet inhabits this state as far as $39^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, throughout the whole year. It is chiefly found in vallies where it feeds on the seeds of the sycamore, but is sometimes injurious to apple orchards. The blue bird continues in all parts of the state throughout the year. The beautiful and minute humming bird is occasionally seen in summer where flowers abound. The great northern owl is an occasional winter visitor. Woodpeckers of different kinds are numerous, and commit great depredations on orchards. Wild pigeons, in their migrations, pass twice a year over the state, generally in great numbers. Sometimes they pass the winter in it. Numerous small birds of the passerine tribe arrive annually from the south in March and April. The valley of the Ohio facilitates this migration, and probably renders it more extensive than it would otherwise be.

The army worm (*phalæna migratoria*) has appeared once or twice in this state in large numbers. Locusts have visited the state a few times, but without ravaging it. The cucumber fly (*crioceris cucumoris*) is a troublesome insect. The larva, which feeds on the unripe ears of Indian corn, has once or twice been so numerous as to do considerable damage. The vallies and marshes produce musquitoes, but they are much less numerous and vexatious than on the Mississippi, and seem entirely to disappear with the increase of improvements. The bee seems to have preceded the first emigrants to this state, and frequently furnished them with an acceptable repast. Considerable quantities of honey obtained in the woods are every autumn brought to market.

The rattle snake is the most formidable serpent Ohio affords. It is, however, seldom seen in settled places except on cliffs and rocky situations. On some of the islands of lake Erie it is said to abound in an astonishing degree. The black rattle snake from 12 to 18 inches in length, is generally found in the prairies. The copper head inhabits every part of the state where it has not been destroyed by the progress of settlement. The black snake is frequent in the woods. The green snake is rare.

Three species of turtle inhabit this state. The tarapin or land tortoise; the snapping turtle; and the soft shelled turtle. The alligator is not found in the Ohio, but a species of salamander, about a foot long, called alligator by fishermen, is common.

In lake Erie, what is called the white fish is abundant and much esteemed. In the Ohio are found 10 or 12 species of fish, of which those preferred for the table are the perch, pike, and yellow catfish. The black catfish, as it is termed, grows sometimes to the weight of 100 lbs. but is not much esteemed for food. The eel is common. Three species of sturgeon inhabit the same waters, one of which attains to the length of 4 or 5 feet; another is perhaps peculiar to this river, or at least oftener found in it than elsewhere. It is called spade or paddle fish, from a remarkable elongation of the upper jaw,

which sometimes equals one-third the length of the other part of the animal.

BOTANY....The champaign region in the interior of the state is said to afford an immense variety of herbaceous plants, among which, different kinds of grass, good for grazing and mowing, are considered most valuable. The *frasera carolinensis*, a large and beautiful plant employed by the people as a bitter, grows luxuriantly in this quarter, as well as many other parts of the state. Its root is denominated *columbo*, but is essentially different from the medicine of that name. The *veratrum luteum*, or devil's bit, *serratula spicata*, or spiked saw wort, and *helleborus fetidus*, or skunk cabbage, inhabit the same situations. Several fine species of lily and violet, with many other beautiful flowers, adorn that interesting tract. Strawberries, gooseberries, raspberries, and cranberries, are found in the same quarter in abundance. The following, among many other plants reported to be useful in medicine or the arts, grow in almost every part of the state. Virginian snake root, (*aristolochia serpentaria*); puccoon root, (*sanguinaria canadensis*); yellow root, (*hydrastis canadensis*); crowfoot, (*geranium maculatum*); May apple, (*podophyllum peltatum*); slender rooted bed straw, (*galium tinctorium*) used by the Indians in dying red; ginseng; several elegant and valuable species of spurge, (*euphorbia*); swallow wort, (*asclepias*) and lobelia; *spira trifoliata*, or Indian physic, an emetic; different species of *eupatorium*; *cassia marylandica*, a substitute for senna; *chironia angularis*, or centaury. The forest trees are numerous, and many of them valuable. Eight or ten species of oak are already known, of these the most esteemed, (*quercus tinctoria*, *quercus obtusifolia*, *quercus macrocarpa*) black oak, white oak and burr oak, are the most common. The two former grow in profusion nearly over the state. The *quercus prinus morticola*, or mountain chesnut oak, is found with the chesnut only on the highest ridges. The beech, *fagus americana*, grows to great size on the level lands, and in many parts almost excludes every other tree. The red maple is confined to wet places; the sugar maple has an extensive diffusion over the state. Those valuable timber trees, the white flowering locust, (*robinia pseudacacia*); black walnut and wild cherry, (*prunus virginiana*) frequently attain to great magnitude. Two species of *æsculus*, or buck-eye trees, which possess several singular and perhaps useful qualities, grow in luxuriance. The yellow poplar (*liriodendron tulipifera*) is one of the largest and most useful trees in the forest. Three or four kinds of hickory (*juglans*) are common. Two species of ash abound in all the fertile tracts. The medicinal or slippery elm (*ulmus americana*) is common. Persimmons are rare. A great variety of plumbs (*cerassus*) and haws (*mespilus*) are common. The crab apple, with its fragrant flowers, and acid but useful fruit, is frequently met with in rich soils. The pawpaw (*annona glabra*) which affords fruit disagreeable to some persons, but delicious to others, forms considerable groves in the fertile portions of the state, except near lake Erie. Five species of the singular and useful family of sumach or *rhus* are known. The sassafras and spicewood species of *laurus* are common. The former is sometimes two feet in diameter. The trumpet flower, a beautiful vine, is common, especially on the banks of rivers. Red cedar is frequent on cliffs, and hemlock is occasionally found in similar situations in the eastern part of the state. White pine grows scatteringly in the same region. The cucumber tree (*magnolia ac-*

cuminata) has a more extensive diffusion over the state. The cotton tree, a species of poplar, grows abundantly along the rivers. These are but a part of the trees which compose the valuable forests of this state.

MINERALOGY....Great part of this state exhibits proofs of marine submersion. This is the case from the Sciota and Sandusky, westwardly. The strata of this extensive tract are horizontal layers of stone, containing petrified sea shells, &c. Towards the Ohio, these layers are disposed alternately with lime stone and argillaceous slate. In some places, as in the south-western part of the military lands, the lime stone predominates. In others the quantity of lime stone is smaller than that of the argillaceous matter. On the surface of the earth, above these strata, lie quantities of granite and pudding stone. Lime stone is not found in the eastern parts of the state. They exhibit the same horizontal plane, with that of the western section. Its strata are level; not separated by soft argillaceous matter, like the other, but by that species of schistus termed shivars. The whole is covered by a deep bed of loam, on which lies the mould or soil.

Of the useful minerals, iron and coal have been discovered in various places, principally in the south-east half of the state. The former is assayed near New Lisbon, above Zanesville, on Brush creek, in Adams county, and on Paint creek. The works at Zanesville and on Brush creek are, however, all that have yet been made productive. Coal has been discovered along the Muskingum, Hockhocking, and Sciota. Specimens of fibrous and crystallized gypsum have been discovered on the Muskingum and Cayahoga. Saltpetre has been discovered on the Hockhocking, but is not known to exist in large quantities. Rock crystal and calcarious spar are found in different places in the Virginia military lands. Red and yellow ochre, copperas, and alum, are found on Paint creek, whose hills will perhaps hereafter be found to furnish materials for an unlimited manufacture of alum, copperas, and sulphuric acid.

Specimens of martial pyrites are found in every part of the state. Clays proper for the coarser kinds of earthen ware are common. Excellent millstones are obtained not far from the mouths of the Sciota and Muskingum rivers. The same quarter affords valuable free-stone quarries, from whence considerable quantities for grindstones and for building are annually exported. On the Great Miami, above Dayton, the solitary masses of pudding-stone which lie scattered over and half sunk into the earth, likewise afford all the millstones necessary for domestic use. On an island in lake Erie is an extensive cave which has furnished some beautiful specimens of stalactites.

POPULATION AND MILITIA....According to the census taken by order of congress in the year 1800, the population amounted to 45,365. By the census of 1810, the number of inhabitants was 227,843. In 1812 the militia was reported at about 36,000.

CHIEF TOWNS....The largest town in Ohio is Cincinnati. It is handsomely situated on the Ohio, between the great and little Miami rivers, near the site of fort Washington, a military frontier post, prior to the treaty of Grenville. The town was first commenced about the year 1790. Within the last ten years it has increased with almost unparalleled rapidity. Surrounded by an extensive body of rich land, it has become the depot for a large proportion of what is generally termed the "Miami country." It contains an elegant

court house, three market houses, a jail, land office, three banks, a steam saw mill, a glass house, and about 1200 dwelling houses. A friends' meeting house, and a fine large presbyterian church have been recently erected. Two breweries, and a large steam mill for making flour, and giving power to machinery for other manufactures, either of cotton or wool, have been lately established in Cincinnati. A large manufactory for woollen and cotton goods, belonging to an incorporated company, is now finishing. The stock or capital is divided into a number of shares. There are many individual establishments for spinning cotton. Domestic manufacturers, such as blacksmiths, joiners, silver-smiths, tin and copper-smiths, nailers, &c. are numerous. The markets are plentifully supplied. Schools are numerous and under tolerable regulations. An extensive Lancasterian seminary, in which it is intended to teach all the branches of a liberal education, has been recently established. It is calculated to accommodate 600 students; their present number is between 400 and 500. The streets, some of the walkways excepted, are unpaved, and of course very muddy in wet weather. Cincinnati was the seat of the territorial government, and the state government continued there until 1806, when it was removed to Chillicothe. Regular lines of barges run between this town and New Orleans. Freight from the latter place is usually from 4 to 6 cents per lb. According to the census of 1810, Cincinnati contained a population of 2,223 souls. It now ranks in point of population the second of the western towns, being only exceeded by Pittsburg, in the number of inhabitants, which were computed in 1815 to amount to 5500 or 6000. It has recently received a charter from the state legislature, and is now an incorporated city.

Marietta is finely situated at the mouth of Muskingum river. It contains about 120 houses, a bank, court house, market house, academy, two churches, and other buildings. Many small vessels are built here. It contains about 1500 inhabitants. It does not wear the flourishing appearance of the other towns, having suffered severely by the annual inundations of the river. Chillicothe stands on the banks of the Sciota, about 70 miles from its junction with the Ohio. It contains upwards of 200 dwelling houses, and 1370 inhabitants. Gallipolis was originally settled by the French. Their titles proving bad, they were obliged to abandon their establishment, and it has since been occupied by Americans. It contains about 100 houses, and 500 inhabitants. A spot on the east bank of Sciota river, opposite Franklinton, and forty miles above Chillicothe, has been fixed upon by the legislature for the future seat of the state government. It is called Columbus. Athens, Xenia, Columbia, Springfield, Urbana, Dayton, Hamilton, Cleaveland, Steubenville, Zanesville, Franklinton, and New Lancaster, are all flourishing towns in this state.

GOVERNMENT.... This territory was subject to a temporary government till 1802, when there was a general convention of the inhabitants, and they framed a constitution for themselves. In 1803 it was acknowledged as an independent state, and sent two senators and one representative to the congress of the United States. The constitution differs in no essential part from most of those already recited. The executive power is vested in a governor chosen by electors for two years, and the legislative in a general assembly, consisting of two houses, elected by the body of the people. Judges

are appointed by the legislature, and justices of peace chosen by the people. They at present send six representatives to congress.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE....The principal manufactures are flour, whiskey, salt, and maple sugar. The chief purchases of foreign merchandise are made in Philadelphia and Baltimore; and the excess of their agricultural productions, their furs, and peltry, are either consumed by the numerous emigrants that flow hither annually, or are shipped down the Ohio and Mississippi to New Orleans. In 1802 there was a ship of 220 tons, and a brig of 120 built at Marietta; while three brigs of 150 tons each, and a sloop of 80 tons, were almost ready to be launched. As this state is situated between the river Ohio and lake Erie, it is probable that its future trade will be divided between those two waters.

CURIOSITIES....The number of old fortifications found in this western country are the admiration of the curious. They are mostly of an oblong form, situated on strong well chosen ground, and contiguous to water. When, by whom, and for what purpose, these were thrown up, is uncertain. They are undoubtedly very ancient, as there is not the least visible difference in the age or size of the timber growing on or within these forts, and that which grows without; the natives have lost all tradition respecting them.

HISTORY....The states of Virginia and Connecticut claimed, agreeably to their Royal charters, the principal part of this territory; but soon after the peace of 1783 ceded their rights to the general government. The former reserved the land between the little Miami and Sciota rivers, containing near 4,000,000 of acres, for the purpose of satisfying grants for military services rendered in the revolutionary contest. Connecticut reserved a tract in the northern section of the state, extending about 120 miles west from the Pennsylvania boundary line, bounded on the north by lake Erie, and south by the parallel of the 41° of north latitude. This tract contained about 5,500,000 acres, and has since been sold to a company for 1,200,000 dollars. This reservation now contains upwards of 17,000 inhabitants. The first settlement was made in the state of Ohio, in 1788, at Marietta. The inhabitants were for a number of years very much harassed by the neighbouring warlike tribes of Indians. The treaty of Grenville in 1795, put an end to the Indian war within the limits of this state. On the 30th of April 1802, congress passed an act to enable the people of the eastern division of the territory north-west of the Ohio, to form a constitution and state government. In the same year, the constitution was framed, and in 1803 the first election under the state government was held.

LOUISIANA.

UNDER this name was formerly designated the immense tract of country, first discovered and settled by France, afterwards ceded to Spain, and again to France, and finally to the United States. The exact boundaries to the westward, to the north and south, were never properly defined. The French claimed all the country watered by the Mississippi and its tributaries, and as far south as the Rio del Norte. The extent to which the United States mean to claim in these different quarters, has not been officially declared, but it is presumed that it will be to the same as claimed by France when it was in her possession. According to these limits, Louisiana may be estimated to contain a million square miles, nearly as great in extent as the rest of the United States. To the eastward, the Mississippi is the boundary as far south as the 31° of north latitude; it then extends across to the Rio Perdido, the ancient French boundary. The eastern part of this tract is now included in the Mississippi territory. The political importance of this immense country, bears no proportion to its geographical magnitude; the state of Louisiana, and the territory of Missouri, comparatively inconsiderable portions, being the only parts which can ever become of much moment in a national point of view. The remainder, being a distant, interior region, will afford few inducements to the progress of settlements; and the nature of the country itself will present great obstacles; being chiefly composed of open plains, like the steppes of Tartary, and even like the Sahara's, of Africa, without wood, and in the greater part badly watered, with a soil, excepting in spots on the margin of rivers, totally unfit for cultivation. In addition may be mentioned the character of the wandering tribes, who would so harass the detached groups of settlements which might be attempted, as to render it almost impossible for them to exist. Herds of buffaloe, in numbers almost incredible, roam these plains. Elk, deer, and antelope, are found in great numbers. Towards the south, horses are seen in large herds, acknowledging no master, and exceedingly wild. Wolves, foxes, badgers, porcupines, hares, and argalia, a nondescript, are common to this district. The grizzly bear, found to the westward below the spurs of the rocky mountains, is described as the most ferocious of all the quadrupeds of this continent. The prairie dog has been mentioned as a curious animal, living in societies or towns, on the plains west of the Mississippi. Amongst the more remarkable curiosities, may be noted the extraordinary salt prairies, some of which are thirty miles in circumference, and which are at times frosted with salt, while at the bottom there is an accumulated mass of several inches in thickness, pieces of which, cut out with a hatchet, have been brought in by hunters. The superintendence of this country is assigned to the governor of Louisiana, for that part which lies contiguous to that state, and to the governor of the territory of Missouri, and to the Indian agent, for that which lies west and north of the territory.

STATE OF LOUISIANA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

THIS state is bounded west by the Sabine river, and a meridional line from the 32° to the 33° of north latitude, which separate it from the Spanish province of Texas; north by the 33° of north latitude, dividing it from Missouri territory; east by Mississippi territory and the gulf of Mexico; south by the gulf of Mexico; containing 45,850 square miles; 29,359,400 acres; or 34,681,623 arpents of Paris: deducting one-fifth for water, swamps, and other unproductive tracts, leaves 23,480,320 acres; or 27,745,300 arpents, as the productive soil of the state of Louisiana.

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.—Louisiana is divided into counties, parishes, and senatorial districts. In some instances the same district or tract of county is both a county and parish. In fact, at present, the division of county is little more than nominal, and originated from the enlargement of the parish with a view to some arrangement of a political or judicial nature; but the present system has nearly done away the objects of the county division. In each parish there is a parish judge, with jurisdiction to the amount of three hundred dollars, in civil cases, and a trifling criminal jurisdiction. He is the judge of probates in the county; generally notary public and auctioneer; and the chief of the parish jury, a body of twelve inhabitants, who have the superintendence of matters of police within the parish, such as assessing and appropriating the parish taxes, laying out roads, the passing of by-laws, and the superintendence of levées, a thing of great importance. The greater part of this business in the other states, takes up the time of the court, and is perhaps less advantageously executed. The following table will shew the number of inhabitants in the different parishes in 1814:

SOUTH-EAST SECTION.

Parishes.	Population.	Parishes.	Population.
New Orleans (the city and Fauxbourgs)	28,000	Iberville,	2,970
St. Bernard,	1,040	West Baton Rouge,	1,620
Plaquemines,	7,120	Point Coupée,	5,000
St. Charles,	3,640	Filiciana,	16,600
St. John the Baptist,	3,320	East Baton Rouge,	
St. James,	4,000	St. Tammany,	
Ascension,	2,500	St. Helena,	75,550
Assumption,	2,720		
Interior of La Fourche,	2,210		

NORTH-WEST AND SOUTH-WEST DIVISIONS.

Natchitoches,	3,330	Avoyelles,	1,340
Ouachitta,	1,200	Opelousas,	5,610
Concordia,	3,203	Attakapas,	8,164
Warren,			26,550
Catahoola,	1,293		
Rapide,	2,440		102,100

More than two-thirds of the inhabitants are slaves.

In most of these parishes there is no town at which the seat of justice may be fixed.

CLIMATE....The climate bears a strong resemblance to that of South Carolina and Georgia. The winters are mild. In fact the appearance of the country is little different throughout the year; winter has not the dreary aspect which it wears in the northern states, but vegetation seems to bloom in every season. The months of December, January and February, are the most pleasant: at this time the air is dry and elastic; there are bracing frosts, though seldom any snow. The sun, during this period, is as warm as in April or May in the northern states, and garden vegetables are in great perfection. The nights are however cool, and cold piercing north-west winds sometimes prevail for a few days; but, generally, fires may be dispensed with. The month of March is less agreeable, from the frequency of storms, and cold winds. April, May, and June, are pleasant; the heat of the sun, which otherwise would be excessive, is moderated by various causes. This being the time of the annual floods, the immense body of fresh water which is every where found over the surface of the country, cools and refreshes the air: this, together with the frequency of the sea breezes, renders the heat less sultry. The months July, August, and September, constitute the fatal period in this climate. The great river has now returned within its banks, leaving every where stagnant waters, which, together with all the variety of putrefactions, animal and vegetable, common at this season, and the slime deposited by the river, exhaling a baleful stench, render the climate exceedingly disagreeable, and sow the seeds of disease. Soon after this time bilious fevers begin to be universally prevalent; few escape an attack more or less virulent. To persons advanced in life, and valetudinarians, the climate is perhaps the best in America. The number of diseases prevalent is small, and they nearly all partake more or less of a bilious character. By the month of October the causes of disease subside, but the following month is rainy and unpleasant. The short winter which succeeds is scarcely of sufficient duration to restore the exhausted system. On coming from the north, about the latter end of November, and remaining until the middle of July, the climate will appear one of the finest in the world. About the period of the autumnal equinox, the most dreadful hurricanes prevail. One of these, which occurred in August 1812, destroyed nearly all the shipping then at the levée, in front of the city, did much injury to the houses, and blew down many trees on the banks of the river. The rains are remarkably heavy; they literally "sport cataracts;" The fields are completely inundated, and in the upland districts, the ravines or streamlets, which a short time before were almost dry, became in a few minutes impassable.

RIVERS....The Mississippi, within this state, is from one to two miles wide, of great depth, and has a most majestic appearance. The banks on each side are low, but rendered picturesque from the beautiful assemblages of trees, and the neat houses of the planters. The embankment of the river, or as it is called, the levée, extends on each side, about one hundred and thirty miles, and is generally a slight mound of earth, of a sufficient thickness, to restrain the waters which would otherwise overflow the adjacent lands every season. The passage of boats pass between the levée and the fields.

The Red river which waters the north-western section of Louisiana, is a long narrow stream, and for nearly three hundred miles

previous to its discharge into the Mississippi, it divides its waters in many places in a singular manner, and after a long separation reunites them, though, lower down, several of its affluent currents find their way to the sea without entering the Mississippi at all. The valley through which it passes, is even more cut up than that of the Mississippi by affluent currents and lakes. This river rises in the Cordilleras, west of Santa Fé, and has a course of little less than two thousand miles, and might be more justly compared to the Nile than the Mississippi. It may be ascended in keel boats, and smaller craft, with but one interruption, as far as the great raft, a natural bridge formed over the river by trunks of trees brought down by its current and lodged. Above the raft it is a clear fine river, and much wider than below, bordered by a beautiful country. Its principal branch within this state is the Washita, called, for about fifty miles, after its junction with the Catahoula and Tensa, by the name of Black river. This river rises in a chain of high hills or mountains, which separates it from the waters of the Arkansas. The Washita has a course little short of one thousand miles, about three hundred of it nearly parallel with the Mississippi. It is well adapted to navigation; the lower part flowing through a flat country, has a current rather sluggish; beyond, it is a handsome clear stream, flowing through a hilly country, and being impeded by some rapids. The Tensa, Bayou Boeuf, and Bayou Maçou, are considerable rivers, flowing between the Washita and the Mississippi, and augmented by the waters of this river, from outlets in high water.

The Sabine, the Teche, Amite, and Pearl rivers, are considerable streams; the two last discharge themselves into the lakes east of the Mississippi. There are besides a great number of smaller streams, and navigable Bayous, or natural canals; that of La Fourche is the most remarkable; it leaves the river eighty miles above New Orleans, and has the regularity of some magnificent work of art. The Chafalaya is a long Bayou, but of bad navigation, and in one place it is interrupted for eighteen miles by a raft or natural bridge.

LAKES...Lake Pontchartrain is a beautiful sheet of water, situated between the large island of Orleans on the south, and West Florida on the north. It is about 35 miles long from east to west, and 25 broad; and from 10 to 15 feet deep. Lake Maurepas communicates at the east end with lake Pontchartrain. At its west end it receives the river Iberville. It is 12 miles long and 8 wide. West of the Mississippi, there are a great number of lakes, formed partly by the streams which flow into this extensive flat from the upland country, and partly from the waters of the Mississippi. Lake Barrataria is one of the most considerable, and is famous as the seat of a band of pirates who not long since infested the gulf of Mexico. In the vicinity of Red river there are a great number of lakes, known by a variety of names, and some of great extent. The most considerable are lakes Bestiana, Yac, Natchez, &c.

MOUNTAINS....There is nothing in this state which can deserve the name of mountain, excepting the dividing hills of the Washita and Arkansas.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS....New Orleans, the capital of this state, and the great mart of the western country, is situated on the east bank of the Mississippi, about 109 miles from the sea. The houses are generally of wood, one story high, without cellars, and make an ordinary appearance. The following are the public buildings: the cathedral,

town house, prison, barracks, hospital, convent and church, charity hospital and church, government house and stores, and some others of inferior note. New Orleans contained in 1814, 28,000 inhabitants. Its trade is very considerable, and it is rapidly increasing in size and importance. The first buildings were erected by the French in 1720. After New Orleans there is scarcely any place which deserves the name of town. There are a few irregular and straggling villages, but none in a very flourishing state. Mechanics are rare in the country, and the planters are in the habit of supplying themselves with almost every article of manufacture or merchandise from the city; and hence there is but little to encourage the growth of the country towns. *Baton Rouge*, situate one hundred and twenty miles above New Orleans, is the largest village in the state; the situation is beautiful on the first high land to be seen on ascending the river. The bank is at least forty feet above the highest floods, and the land is covered in the rear with a heavy growth. It is yet but a poor place; there are no good houses; its inhabitants are a few retailers of merchandise on a small scale. It must undoubtedly in time become a considerable town. It contains about five hundred souls, is in latitude $30^{\circ} 26'$, and is the seat of justice of the parish of East Baton Rouge.

La Fourche, a small village, situate at the outlet of the bayou of that name, about forty miles below Baton Rouge, is a lively place; in its population, &c. resembling the place just mentioned. Alexandria, situate at the rapids, on Red river; Natchitoches, on Red river, 75 miles above Alexandria; St. Francisville, forty miles above Baton Rouge; the Opelousas church; the Attakapas church, and New Iberia, below on the Teche, are all small villages like those described, and are the seats of justice for the parishes in which they are situated.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY...The surface, although in general level, is much diversified in its appearance. The section to the north-east of Red river, is a high and even hilly country, constituting nearly a third of the whole state; it may in general be termed broken upland, covered chiefly with pines, the land sandy, and in some places stony. On the margins of the streams, which are limpid and beautiful, the soil is rich and covered with good timber. The tract which lies parallel with the Mississippi river, and which may be considered twenty or thirty miles in width, is low, flat, and fertile, interspersed with numerous lakes, whose banks are as high, if not higher, than those of the Mississippi. This tract is nearly all inundated in extraordinary floods, but not by one sheet of water, as has been represented, excepting in the space enclosed by Black river and the Mississippi and Red river. The tract extending from Red river to the gulf, along the banks of the Mississippi, is on an average not less than forty miles in breadth, and singularly cut up by currents which make out from the river, and carry off its waters to the sea by numerous channels. It is also interspersed with lakes, some of considerable magnitude, as has been already mentioned. The whole presents a singular compound of sunken lands, morasses, prairies, deep cane breaks, reflux currents, (whose black and nauseous waters flow, through deep and ugly channels,) lagoons, swamps, and lakes embosomed in dark and gloomy woods. Tracts of considerable magnitude are almost inaccessible. It is a singular fact, that a few years ago a large herd of buffaloe was discovered on one of these detached tracts within thirty miles of New Orleans. West of this

tract are the high waving plains of the Opelousas, and the rich lands of the Attakapas, on the Teche. The plains of the Opelousas are almost bare of timber, and covered with herds of cattle. The Teche is the eastern boundary of this section; the alluvion of the Mississippi may be considered as commencing east of it. The part of West Florida added to Louisiana, is generally a high tract, of a tolerable soil, and well supplied with streams. The borders of the lakes, and the vicinity of the larger rivers, is marshy, and not well adapted to cultivation. The island of Orleans is formed by the Bayou Manchac, which leaves the Mississippi about one hundred and ten miles above the city, and enters the river Amite; it is bounded on the east by lakes Maurepas, Pontchartrain, and Borgne. Below New Orleans, it is much wider than above, and the settlements are not confined to the river. The Terre Bouef settlement is situated on a bayou which discharges itself into the lake. Excepting the part which was formerly West Florida, nearly the whole of the inhabited part of Louisiana may be described as composed of narrow disconnected strips, on the borders of the streams, seldom exceeding a half a mile or three quarters in width.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS....The soil throughout the delta and alluvions varies but little. On the Red river it is of a deep red colour, caused, as is supposed, by the admixture of some mineral substance, and is perhaps the most vigorous of any soil in the state; it produces cotton worth several cents more in the pound than what is grown in other parts of Louisiana. The soil of these alluvions is exceedingly productive, and being all formed by the deposits of the river, may be considered inexhaustible; the same fields have been cultivated fifty years without any perceptible diminution of their fertility. The soil of the upland is either a cold whitish coloured clay, or light and sandy, as is the case throughout the greater part of Florida, and west of the Washita and Red river. The upland soon wears out, or where there are declivities, soon washes off.

The culture of this country is infinitely less varied than in the northern states. Cotton, Indian corn, rice, and in the lower part of the delta, the sugar cane, constitute the principal articles. Small grain has not been introduced to any extent; it is said, however, that the highlands of the Washita are well adapted to its culture. Tobacco is every where cultivated, though not with a view of extensive exportation. The cane has been successfully raised as high on the river as Point Coupée, but beyond this the climate is too cold. The banks of the Mississippi, above and below New Orleans, are rapidly converting into sugar plantations. The sugar cane will undoubtedly in time constitute the principal wealth of Louisiana.

In the Attakapas and Opelousas the inhabitants turn their attention chiefly to grazing, and immense herds of cattle roam over the plains. Excepting a little salt, their keeping is attended with little or no expense. The numbers owned by some of the wealthiest individuals would appear almost incredible any where else; several mark from fifteen hundred to two thousand calves every year. But little butter or cheese is made; the cattle are brought in droves to the Mississippi, and sold on the coast of the river, or at the city. Sheep, hogs, poultry, &c. thrive exceedingly well. The horses of Louisiana are small, but well made, and very hardy.

The fruits of Louisiana consist of oranges, figs, grapes, plums, and melons, all which, but particularly the fig, are in great perfection.

Peaches are not generally good; apples, pears, apricots, are but indifferent. There are no cherries, currants, raspberries, or damson plums. In fact there is by no means so great a variety in the fruits of this country as in those of the northern states.

ANIMALS....The bear, wolf, and panther, are frequently seen; the latter particularly. The alligator is found in great numbers on the lakes and rivers. Some of them are fifteen feet in length. They are not often dangerous, though individuals have been attacked by them. There is a variety of serpents, some of uncommon size. The rattle-snake is frequently seen. The scorpion, tarantula, and other venomous reptiles, common to southern climates, are met with here.

CURIOSITIES....There are few of those appearances in nature which may be called curiosities. The whole country possessing but little diversity of character, the variety of mountain and vale, being scarcely known, there are no water falls, caverns, or uncommon objects. The great raft over the Chafalaya, is worthy of remark. It is an immense accumulation of logs and pieces of wood brought here by the stream, completely bridging the channel, and at present covered with a layer of soil, on which large trees have sprung up, so that the bayou might be passed without being observed.

MILITARY FORCE....The militia consists of about ten thousand men, divided into twenty-two regiments, commanded by two major-generals and six brigadiers, who are chosen by joint ballot of both houses. This militia is badly disciplined, though composed of materials which might be easily rendered efficient.

RELIGION....The catholic religion prevails generally, though all others are tolerated. There are yet no regular preachers of any other denomination; occasionally a methodist or baptist minister has fixed himself for a short period, but none has remained permanently. There is in fact but little encouragement to preachers of the gospel; the inhabitants are so engrossed with their business and pleasures, that they are but little susceptible of religious habits.

LITERATURE....The sciences are but little cultivated in Louisiana. The wealthy part of the population are yet insensible of the importance of learning. In the city of New Orleans there is a college, established by the territorial legislature, on which considerable sums were expended not to much advantage, for it is by no means in a flourishing state. The same law established public schools in each parish, and provided the means of defraying the expense of building houses for the purpose, and of paying tutors; they have gone into operation only in a few instances. Learning is certainly at a low ebb in Louisiana; and if what is possessed by the adventurers who have settled there should be withdrawn, there would be but little left.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS....It has been observed that the differences of character in the people of the various states of the union, are not essentially great. Louisiana forms an exception to this remark; and this may be attributed to the origin of the colony, and to the nature of the colonial government. The population was chiefly French, with a few Spaniards, Germans, and English, intermixed. The government was more subject to the caprice of individuals, than to any sober and regular system. The people of Louisiana were by no means corrupt, although devoted to pleasures, and caring little about liberal attainments; their men were honest, and their women virtuous. Many admirable virtues flourished amongst them, and an

amiableness of manners prevailed which is scarcely known in the old states. The English language has made surprising progress in Louisiana, yet there exist prejudices which are to be regretted : it is with some reluctance they think of amalgamating with the rest of the states, and of falling into the same mode of thinking on political subjects. In fact scarcely the elements of political knowledge yet pervade the mass of the people. They have an unaccountable dislike to the liberal professions, and take but little pains in the education of their children. The Louisianians possess much ardour and acuteness of mind, united with bodily activity, though not usually strong. They are fond of pleasures, and although inclined to indolence, their exercises are often very fatiguing. The small planters or peasantry of Louisiana, are a hardy, inoffensive, industrious, ignorant people, who scarcely ever stir from their houses; of the greatest simplicity of manners; cultivate a little rice, Indian corn, cotton, tobacco, and a variety of garden vegetables. Their diet is extremely meagre, and they have a sallow unhealthy appearance. The rich planters who live well, and use the necessary precautions against the diseases of the climate, look as well as any people in the world. All travellers agree in the praise of the fair sex of Louisiana; their manners are amiable and modest, their countenance pleasing, and persons fine. Yet they are not properly appreciated by their countrymen, if we may judge from the vile custom of concubinage with women of colour, which prevails to a scandalous extent. Some of the wealthiest individuals have none but families of coloured people, who are always kept out of the way when strangers visit the house. The morals of the people generally are certainly loose, but it is to be hoped that the new order of things will by degrees effect a change. Some unfortunate jealousies prevailed between the Americans and the native Louisianians, but it is to be presumed that the late co-operation in the defence of the state, and its glorious result, will tend to do away unreasonable and ill-founded antipathies.

MINERALOGY....From the nature of the soil, the delta presents little to the eye of the mineralogist. *Coal* is occasionally discovered, and the timber which is imbedded in the alluvion, is daily becoming converted into that mineral. A story is related of a wonderful mass of *platina* on the Black river; this is not sufficiently attested to merit much attention. On Red river, near the northern boundary of the state, an *alum* bank has been discovered, which, from appearances, is calculated to yield large quantities of that article. Limestone abounds on this river, as likewise a sort of rock, from which the inhabitants manufacture good mill and grind-stones. Petrifications are common. The country about the Washita and Red rivers, affords many instances of *salt*. *Cathartic salts*, and *magnesia*, may be manufactured in the neighbourhood of Natchitoches.

BOTANY....Most of the native trees and plants of the Atlantic coast, are found in this state. The cotton tree is invariably seen in abundance on the river bottoms of the Mississippi. It is the first, after the willow, which springs up on alluvion soils. The peccanne is found on the low grounds, where it grows to most perfection. It is a large tree, bearing some resemblance to the hickory. The cypress, ash, pine, magnolia, ever-green oak, and a number of other trees, are common in the state of Louisiana. The variety of flowers and herbaceous plants is very great. The palmettoe is common in the lower parts of the state. In the Opelousas are a number of small

lakes, whose shores are enveloped in the most gloomy forests of oak, cypress and ash, upon whose boughs, the long moss, or Spanish beard, is suspended in enormous masses, almost shutting out the light from these dreary spots, while underneath there is an impenetrable thicket of underwood, and smaller trees and vines. These masses of moss bear some resemblance to the shattered sails of a ship after a storm, the canvass hanging down in a thousand ragged shreds. Chateaubriand compares them to enormous ghosts!

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE....As yet but little progress has been made in what may strictly be called manufactures in Louisiana. The chief attention of the people has been paid to the cultivation of the cane and cotton. The sugar plantations are the most profitable establishments. The duty levied by the government on foreign sugar, operates as a *bounty* nearly equal to the original value of the commodity. The whole quantity exported from Louisiana and the Floridas in 1802, was only 1,576,933 lbs. The quantity made on the Mississippi alone, is now estimated at 10,000,000 lbs. Cotton is also a great staple; in 1812, 20,000 bales were exported. Tobacco, of a very superiour quality, is cultivated in great quantities; and much indigo is raised. In the first five months of the year 1812, produce to the amount of 2,000,000 of dollars was received at New Orleans from the upper country. It consisted principally of flour, cotton, bacon, lead, lard, whiskey, pork, corn, tobacco, and rope yarn. In 1810, there were in this state 993 looms, 87 blacksmith shops, 16 tanneries, 17 distilleries, 11 drug manufactories, 2 rope walks, 2 powder mills, 3 salt works, 34 saw mills, 90 sugar works, 29 brick kilns, 40 indigo works, and 14 cotton presses. The exports from the port of New Orleans in 1811, amounted to 2,650,050 dollars; 2,501,842 of which was domestic, and 148,208 foreign produce. In 1812, the exports were, domestic, 1,033,759 dollars; foreign, 36,930 dollars; total 1,070,689 dollars.

GOVERNMENT....The powers of government, as in the other states, are divided into the three departments of executive, legislative and judiciary. The governor is elected for four years, and is ineligible for the next term. He must be 35 years of age, have resided in the state for six years, and hold landed estate to the value of 5000 dollars. The legislature is composed of a senate and house of representatives. The state is divided into fourteen indivisible senatorial districts, each of which elects one senator. Senators serve four years, with a biennial rotation of one half. A senator must be 27 years of age, have resided in the state four years, and possess landed property to the value of 1000 dollars. Representatives are regulated by the number of qualified electors. For this purpose a census is taken every fourth year. Their number cannot be less than twenty-five, nor more than fifty.

There is a supreme court, composed of not less than three, nor more than five judges, with a salary of 5000 dollars per annum. The district court is composed of a single judge for each district, usually composed of several parishes, with criminal jurisdiction in all cases, and civil jurisdiction to any amount. The laws of Spain are in force, as far as they do not interfere with the present institutions, and where these are silent, the laws of France and the civil laws prevail; the common law is also resorted to. This mixture leads to considerable embarrassment and uncertainty in the administration of justice.

HISTORY....The first serious attempt at colonization in this part of America, was made in 1699 by M. D'Iberville. The country had been previously penetrated by different parties of Spaniards and French, but no establishments were formed. The first settlement was made on the Isle of Dauphin. In 1717 the position where New Orleans now stands was selected, and nearly all the settlers removed to Beloxi. In 1720 the first houses were built in New Orleans. The colony had to struggle through many difficulties, and was involved in several serious wars with the neighbouring Spanish settlements, and the surrounding tribes of Indians. In 1755 a war commenced between France and England, which was particularly disastrous to the former. Canada was conquered and the French navy destroyed. Peace took place in 1763, and Louisiana was ceded to Spain. It continued in the peaceable possession of the latter power till the year 1801, at which time it was restored to the French. In 1803 it was purchased by the government of the United States, and in 1812, that part of Louisiana, constituting the territory of Orleans, was admitted into the union as a free and independent state.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

THE district of Columbia is situated on both sides of the river Potomac, about 120 miles from its mouth. It was ceded by the states of Virginia and Maryland to the general government of the United States in 1790; it having been fixed upon as a proper situation for the erection of the permanent capital of the union. It is ten miles square, and contains 24,023 inhabitants. Besides the city of Washington, which has been already described, it contains the towns of Georgetown and Alexandria.

The river Potomac passes through this district, and is navigable for large ships above the city. The Eastern branch, as it is called, rises in Maryland, and joins the Potomac at Washington. It is navigable four miles for large vessels. The face of the country, soil and productions, resemble those of the neighbouring states.

Alexandria is a place of considerable trade. Flour is the principal article of export. In 1810 the exports amounted to 1,038,103 dollars, of which 984,463 were of domestic, and 53,640 of foreign produce. There are several tanneries, distilleries, breweries, sugar refineries, glass works, &c. in this district. It is divided into two counties by the river Potomac, Washington and Alexandria. The former is governed by the laws of Maryland; the latter by those of Virginia. The militia amounts to 2,250. Presbyterians and episcopalians are the most numerous religious sects. The methodists, baptists, friends, and Roman catholics, have each places of worship. The latter have also a well endowed college at Georgetown. There are academies in Georgetown and Alexandria. The public library was burned with the capitol by the British in 1814. Congress have since purchased the private library of the late president Jefferson, which is said to be very extensive.

TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

MICHIGAN TERRITORY.

SITUATION, BOUNDARY AND EXTENT....That body of land between lakes Huron and Michigan is called Michigan territory. It is bounded on the north by both those lakes, on the west by lake Michigan; by lake Huron and the waters that connect it with lake Erie on the east, and on the south by an east and west line, running from the south end of lake Michigan to lake Erie, which divides it from Ohio and Indiana territory. It contains about 35,000 square miles, two-thirds of which is still claimed by the Indians.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION, GOVERNMENT, FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL AND CLIMATE, TOWNS, SETTLEMENTS, &c. The territory is divided into four districts. In 1800 the inhabitants amounted to 3206; in 1810 they numbered 4762; a much smaller proportional increase than in any other western state or territory. A governor and three judges are appointed by the president, with the approbation of the senate. The country presents a level appearance; there is high land in the centre, but nothing like mountains is found in the territory. The soil in general is good, but the settlements are only on the margin of the lakes and some of the rivers. Being almost surrounded by large bodies of water, its climate is milder than its high latitude would indicate; the winters at Detroit are said to be warmer than in Philadelphia. The only town is Detroit, situated on the west side of the strait that connects lake St. Clair with lake Erie. The town was burnt in 1805; it now contains about 100 houses, and 600 inhabitants. The United States have a fort here, in which a small garrison is kept. Fort Michilimackinac is in this district, on a small island between lakes Huron and Michigan; it is the most northern military station belonging to the United States. Its principal importance is the protection it affords to the fur trade. The commerce is very trifling; the only export consists of furs obtained from the Indians. The population is made up principally of Canadian French and their descendants. During the late war between the United States and Great Britain, the forts of Detroit and Michilimackinac were captured by the latter; and for a short time the government of this territory was in their hands. In the course of another campaign, however, Detroit was recaptured, and the former government replaced.

INDIANA TERRITORY.

BOUNDARIES, EXTENT AND SITUATION.... This territory is separated from Ohio on the east by a meridian line, extending from the mouth of the Great Miami to the south boundary of Michigan territory. On the south it is bounded by the Ohio river, dividing it from Kentucky; on the west, it has the Illinois territory, from which it is divided by the Wabash river, from its mouth as far up as Vincennes, and thence by a meridian line to the boundary between the United States and Canada. On the north it is bounded by Michigan territory and lake Superior. It is situated between $37^{\circ} 45'$ and $41^{\circ} 50'$ north latitude, and $82^{\circ} 42'$ and $85^{\circ} 45'$ west longitude, and contains about 37,000 square miles.

DIVISIONS, POPULATION, GOVERNMENT, FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL AND CLIMATE, RIVERS, &c. The territory is divided into four counties, and at the census of 1810 contained 24,520 inhabitants. In 1800 they amounted to 5641, including Illinois territory. The present population is about 40,000. There are besides several tribes of Indians inhabiting the northern part of the territory, from the Wabash to lake Michigan, but they are rapidly decreasing, either by disease, war, or emigration, and in a few years the whole country will doubtless become the property of the United States. The territory is governed by a governor, secretary, three judges appointed by the president of the United States, and a legislature chosen by the people. The legislature appoint the other civil officers of the territory, and enact such laws for its internal government as they may think proper, subject to the controul of congress; they also elect a delegate to congress, who has the right of debating but not of voting in that body. When the population amounts to 60,000, it will be entitled to an admission into the union as an independent state. The face of the country resembles very much the state of Ohio; there is much uneven country, though not mountainous. The savannas or prairies are extensive and numerous. The soil is in general rich and well adapted for the cultivation of hemp, wheat, Indian corn, tobacco, &c. The climate is represented as being fine, excepting in the vicinity of some of the low grounds adjoining the rivers, but this evil will no doubt be overcome when the settlements become more numerous, and the country drained by the extension of agriculture. The Wabash river rises in the north-east part of the territory near the boundary line of Ohio; its course is about south-west, almost equally dividing the territory. It is a large stream, and receives several important tributary waters, the largest of which is White river. The Wabash enters the Ohio about 150 miles above its junction with the Mississippi, and is above 300 yards wide at its mouth. It is navigable for boats of fifteen tons burden near 300 miles, and for those of a lesser draught 200 miles further; one of its head branches connects, by a short portorage, with the Miami of the lakes emptying into lake Erie. Salt springs are numerous; iron and coal are also found.

TOWNS, COMMERCE, &c.... The principal town is Vincennes, the seat of government. It is situated on the Wabash river, about 150 miles above its mouth, latitude $38^{\circ} 50'$ north, longitude $87^{\circ} 10'$ west. It contains 120 houses and 700 inhabitants; the town was

first settled by Canadian French as early as 1735; they were represented by Volney, who visited them in 1797, as "meagre, tawny, and poor as Arabs;" but it now wears a different aspect; the population has been increased by enterprising emigrants from the neighbouring and eastern states, and the town is flourishing. It is the emporium of trade for the territory, consisting principally of peltry and furs. Corrydon, Jeffersonville, Lawrenceburg, and Clarksville, are the other towns; they are all small villages. The exports of the territory are yet small; the inhabitants raise no more of the articles of life than are wanted for the domestic consumption of the country. There is a settlement of Swiss emigrants on the Ohio river about ninety miles below Cincinnati, who have been successful in cultivating the vine. The vintage of 1812 produced about 5000 gallons. The species principally cultivated is the Constantia or cape grape; the Madeira grape is also cultivated. In a few years this will undoubtedly present an article of export to the Atlantic ports; at present they find no difficulty in obtaining a market in the neighbouring towns at one dollar and twenty-five cents per gallon.

ILLINOIS TERRITORY.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS, POPULATION AND GOVERNMENT.... This territory in 1809 was separated from Indiana. It is bounded on the south by the Ohio river; on the east by Indiana territory, from which it is divided by a meridian line, commencing at Vincennes on the Wabash river; on the north it has lake Superior and the British possessions, and on the west the Mississippi river. It is divided into five counties, and contains according to the last census 12,282 inhabitants. The counties are Madison, St. Clair, Randolph, Johnson and Gallatin. The three former are on the Mississippi; the two last on the Ohio and Wabash. The government is the same as that of Indiana.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL AND CLIMATE, RIVERS, ORIGINAL POPULATION, &c. The country is in general pretty level; the prairies are extensive, and numerous. It is well watered by several important rivers and their tributary streams. The Kaskaskias river empties into the Mississippi about ninety miles below the Missouri, its course is through a fertile country, and it is navigable for boats 120 miles. The Illinois river is one of the most important in the territory, interlocking by a portage of three miles with the Chicago, a short river, which empties into lake Michigan near its southern extremity. In spring, boats often pass from one river to the other without unloading. It is navigable above 400 miles, and is the great channel of the fur and peltry trade from the country north and west of lakes Superior and Michigan, to St. Louis in Missouri territory. It enters the Mississippi eighteen miles above the mouth of the Missouri. Stony river is a navigable stream about 200 miles. The Ouisconsin is the second river in point of size; it is a fine navigable stream, and interlocks by a portage of one mile with Fox river, emptying into lake Michigan. It runs a westerly course and joins the Mississippi near Prairie du Chien, in north latitude 43° 5'. The soil is in general

fine, the rivers are skirted by extensive fertile meadows. As the territory includes many degrees of latitude, it must be supposed to have a variety of climate; the southern part is represented as being mild and fine; in the northern part the severity of the higher latitudes is experienced. In both this and Indiana territory the land is principally claimed by the Indians; the Winebagos, Kickapoos, Delawares, Miami, and various other tribes. Many small lakes are scattered over this territory, some of them very beautiful, stored with fish, and resorted to by myriads of water fowl, of every description. There are no mountains, except, perhaps, in the extreme northern part, and the few hills are of moderate height. These are found chiefly in the neighbourhood of the Ohio, and some of the other large rivers. In summer a great variety of wild flowers grow in the prairies. The timber on the uplands consists of a large proportion of oak, hickory, &c. The pecanne is found in abundance in the vallies. The nut of this tree is very fine. It is a favourite with the crows and paroquets, who are always found in the same neighbourhood. Wild plums, hops, and other vines, are abundant in the bottoms. Grapes are found in most situations. The papaw and persimmon trees are numerous.

What is called the American bottom, is a remarkable tract of very rich land, bordering on the Mississippi river, extending in length about 100 miles (from below Kaskaskias to the mouth of the Illinois) and averaging from three to four miles in breadth. The eastern margin of this bottom is bounded by a perpendicular bluff of rocks, of various heights, generally from one to four hundred feet. Eastward the land continues nearly on a level with the top of the bluff, and the dry prairies soon commence. These are not so rich as the American bottom, but both they and the woodlands produce good Indian corn, and excellent wheat and other small grain. Much good land is said to be on the Illinois and Ouisconsin rivers, as also on the big and little Wabash. On the whole, this territory equals any part of America for soil; but, except in some places, it is not well supplied with timber and springs.

Illinois contains the usual species of quadrupeds found in the other parts of North America, with those peculiar to the western prairies, as the prairie dog, &c. Bisons were once very numerous, but have disappeared; their paths, with many of their bones and horns, are still visible. Some elk still remain. Deer are very numerous. The number of water fowl would be incredible to one who has not visited the country in the spring season. The air is sometimes literally filled, and the waters covered with immense flocks of swans, geese, pelicans, ducks, herons, sand-bills, &c. Turkeys are in plenty, with partridges; pheasants are not so numerous. Grouse abound in the prairies. The beautiful paroquet is in great abundance. Coal is plenty in various parts of the territory. There are some appearances of lead ore. Salt is made in the greatest abundance, at the United States' saline, 12 miles from the Ohio. It supplies the whole state of Tennessee and a considerable part of Kentucky and Indiana territory. Seven hundred bushels per day have been made. The settlements are a good deal scattered. The most northern is of French as high as the Ouisconsin river, or Prairie du Chien. There was one of the same people at Peoria near half way up the Illinois, but it was broken up by the late war. Fort Clark has been lately built at that place. The American bottom, before described, is settled throughout, but not thickly except at Cahokia and Kaskaskias, which

are the two oldest settlements on the Mississippi, and are about 55 miles apart. They were commenced at the same time with the French Canadian settlements, and were once quite populous. The latter is said to have contained 7000 inhabitants. It had a large college of Jesuits, the traces of which are now visible. Various causes induced the French to forsake these places and cross the Mississippi into the Spanish government, where they built St. Louis opposite to Cahokia, and St. Genevieve opposite to Kaskaskias. Among these causes were the conquest of their country first by the British and afterwards by the Americans, and the prohibition of slavery north-west of the Ohio by the ordinance of congress of 1787. Rich and fertile lands are taken up by settlers eastward of the American bottom, above the bluff, and proceed parallel with it almost the whole length, in width from 15 to 20 miles. Scattering settlers then continue down the Mississippi to its junction with the Ohio; then up the Ohio on the whole south line of the territory to the mouth of Wabash, then up the Wabash nearly or quite to Vincennes. Some settlers are found on every considerable stream or creek in all this route, from the mouth of the Illinois to the place last mentioned; also on the principal roads, which, however, are but few. But the interior of the territory still remains for the most part an unsettled wild of woods and prairies. On the Ohio side, Shawanoetown is at present the principal settlement. It is a town of log cabins, 10 miles below the mouth of the Wabash, and is the grand depot of the salt made at the United States' saline. From this circumstance, as well as from the richness of the country in its rear, and its being the first practicable site for a town below the mouth of the Wabash, and central between Green River and the Cumberland, it must become an important place, notwithstanding its liability to occasional inundations.

Kaskaskias, in Randolph county, is the seat of government of this territory. The supreme court is held here. Each of the counties has a court of common pleas.

MISSISSIPPI TERRITORY.

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.... This territory, which was formerly the western part of Georgia, is situated between 31° and 35° of north latitude, and between 84° and 91° of longitude west from London. It is bounded on the east by Georgia; on the north by the state of Tennessee; on the west by the Mississippi, which separates it from the state of Louisiana and Missouri territory; and on the south by West Florida and the gulf of Mexico; being in length from east to west about 320 miles, and in breadth north and south 278, containing an area of about 90,000 square miles. A great part of this extensive region is still the property of the Creek, Choctaw, Chickesaw, and Cherokee Indians, two other potent tribes, the Yazoes and Natches, having been destroyed by wars, or having retired further into the western forests.

The first European settlement in this country was made by the French, from New Orleans or Florida. As long since as the year 1727, there was a colony of Frenchmen settled at a place called the Natches, but they were mostly massacred by the natives. In the

year 1763, a considerable body of Acadians removed hither, having been expelled from their former abode in Nova Scotia by the English, for taking part with their countrymen in the war which had just commenced. But while this territory remained under the dominion of the French, no improvements were made worth noticing, either in building or cultivating the soil; for they excel more in over-running a country that has been improved by others, than in clearing and cultivating a wilderness.

The general face of the country, to the south and south-west, is an extensive level of wide savannas, and forests of towering timber, consisting of most of the species that are useful for fuel or architecture; among which the pine, the red and white cedar, are the most conspicuous. Towards the north-east the face of the country is rather more broken, being penetrated by spurs of the Allegheny mountains. In the northern part the timber is principally oak, hickory, walnut, &c. The soil is generally very rich, and, where it has been cultivated, produces great crops of grain, cotton, indigo, and tobacco of a superior quality.

GOVERNMENT, DIVISIONS, AND POPULATION...This territory is governed in the same manner as the two preceding; application has been made to congress for the admission of the southern part into the union as an independent state. It is divided into eleven counties, and had in 1810 a population of 40,352 inhabitants, two-fifths slaves. The population now exceeds 50,000.

RIVERS....The territory is well watered by rivers, though in some districts it is deficient of smaller streams. On the west it is washed by the Mississippi above 400 miles. The Tennessee has its course a considerable distance through the northern part; at the Muscle Shoals it is only a few miles from the head waters of the Tombigbee, and at some future period will form a most important connection in the outlet to the ocean, for the state of Tennessee, the south-western corner of Virginia, and the north-eastern portion of this territory. The Yazoo rises in the north-west, and after a course nearly south-west, enters the Mississippi near the walnut hills; it is navigable for large boats a number of miles, and has its course through a large body of rich lands, famous for a speculation which takes its name from this river. The Tombigbee or Tumbekby runs nearly a south course through the centre of the territory; it receives the Alabama coming from the north-east, and rising in the northern part of Georgia. After their junction, which is at fort Stoddard, about twenty miles above the Florida line, they take the name of Mobile river and discharge into the bay of the same name. The sloop navigation extends to fort Stephens, about seventy miles above Mobile, and for boats it is navigable several hundred miles further. The other rivers are, the Pascagoula and Pearl, to the west of the Mobile and the Chatahouchy on the east; the latter is the boundary between Georgia and East Florida.

CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS....The climate of the country may be called fine. From observations made in the southern part it does not appear to have greater extremes of heat than is experienced in the states much farther north. In July 1807, the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer did not rise above 94°; the mean heat of that month was 86°. From the same observations it appears that the greatest degree of cold in the year 1808 was in February; the thermometer then sinking to 43°. Vegetation commences from the mid-

dle of March to the first of April. The soil, as has been already noticed, is generally very fine. In the southern part, approaching Florida, it is rather light and sandy, but the great body of the territory consists of very rich land, covered with forests of valuable timber, and cane brakes. The principal crop is cotton, which is the only article of export of importance from the territory. At the settlement on the Tombigbee, 30,000 bales, of 350 lbs. each, have been raised *per annum*. Indian corn is raised in sufficient quantity for the consumption of the country, but wheat does not thrive well; the inhabitants bordering on the Mississippi receive their principal supply of flour from the Ohio waters; in some of the low grounds of the south rice is cultivated, but not to any great extent. Sheep are becoming numerous, and cattle are plenty.

TOWNS ...Natchez is the only town of importance in the territory. It is situated on a high bluff of land on the Mississippi; it contains about 300 houses, principally built of wood, generally one story high, with many windows and doors; the population is a motley mixture of Americans, French and Spanish Creoles, mulattoes and negroes, and amounts to near 1500 souls. Vessels of 400 tons ascend the river to the city. It is 300 miles above New Orleans, north latitude $31^{\circ} 33'$; longitude $91^{\circ} 24'$ west. It contains no public buildings worthy of notice. There are several other towns, but all of them small; Washington, the seat of government, is the largest, containing about 450 inhabitants, one-third slaves.

MISSOURI TERRITORY.

BOUNDARIES, EXTENT, RIVERS....The territory of Missouri is bounded on the south by the state of Louisiana. On the west, it may be considered as bounded by the Osage purchase;* this line runs from a place called the Black rock, about three hundred miles up the Missouri, due south to strike the Arkansas. On the north, a line was agreed upon in a treaty between governor Harrison, and the Sacs and Foxes, which begins at a point opposite the Gasconade river, and strikes the Mississippi at the Jaufoine river. The Mississippi bounds it on the east.

This embraces an extent of country nearly three times as large as the state of Pennsylvania, and which contains a much greater proportion of tillable land. The section north of the Missouri, and the one south of the Arkansas, are each sufficient to form a considerable state; but the Osage Purchase constitutes the principal body of the territory, and may be justly considered, next to the state of Louisiana, the most valuable tract in the great valley of the Mississippi.

The *Missouri* is much the most considerable of any of the rivers which swell the Mississippi, and one of the most wonderful in the world. It enters the Mississippi nearly at right angles in latitude $38^{\circ} 55'$; the confluence is by no means comparable to that of the Ohio, principally owing to an island at the entrance. The course of the river in ascending is little north of west to the Platte. Above this, its course is nearly N. W. until we reach the Mandan villages,

* Except on the south of the Arkansas, where there is no western boundary.

in latitude 46. From this point the distance to the Mississippi is less than from the Platte. From the northernmost part of the great bend, above the Mandans, and in latitude 47° we ascend nearly west; the course of the three forks, Jefferson, Madison, and Gallatin, is nearly south-west and south. The current of this river is at least a fourth greater than that of the Mississippi. To the Platte, it is amazingly swift, and stemmed with great difficulty, abounding with shoals and sand bars, sawyers, rafts projecting from the shore, and islands. It is almost impracticable to descend in flat-bottomed boats, even in the highest stages of the water: in barges great care and dexterity are requisite. Above the Platte, the Missouri, though not less swift in current, is rendered more easy of navigation by the large sand bars, and clear banks, which admit of towing. To the falls, two thousand miles further, it preserves the same character; the navigation however becomes less dangerous, or difficult, excepting from the shoals, which in low water are abundant. Above the falls or cataracts, there is a clear fine river five hundred miles to the three forks, affording better navigation than any part of the Missouri, although the channel is generally narrow and sometimes confined between lofty mountains. The three forks are all fine rivers, and receive a great number of smaller streams. The Missouri receives all its principal rivers from the south-west side.

The floods of this river usually begin early in March, and there is a continued succession of them until the last of July; the river subsiding and again rising as the different rivers bring down their annual tributes. There is little variation in its width from its mouth to the cataracts. In some places it spreads considerably, and in these, sandbars impede the navigation in low water: at these times the river is reduced in places to less than a fourth of its usual breadth, between sandbars which advance into it, and a high bank. But when the channel is full, the river even at the Mandans appears not less broad or majestic than does the Mississippi at New Orleans. The cataracts of the Missouri, from every description, are, next to those of Niagara, the most stupendous in the world. The descent, in the distance of eighteen miles, according to the estimation of Lewis and Clark, is 362 feet 9 inches.

The first great pitch	98 feet
— second	19 —
— third	47 — 8 inches
— fourth	26 —

besides a number of smaller ones. The width of the river is about three hundred and fifty yards. The whole extent of navigation of this river which has no other cataract or considerable impediment, from the highest point on Jefferson river, the largest of the three forks, to its entrance into the Mississippi, is three thousand and ninety-six miles; no other tributary stream in the world possesses such a navigation.

The *Arkansas*, next to the Missouri, is the most considerable tributary of the Mississippi. In length it is nearly two thousand five hundred miles, and navigable at proper seasons nearly the whole distance. In many places its channel is broad and shallow, at least above the rapids, so as to render navigation almost impracticable. Until eight or nine hundred miles from its mouth, it receives no

considerable streams, owing to the vicinity of the waters of the Missouri, of the Kansas, &c. on the one side, and those of Red river on the other. The chief rivers which fall into it, are the Verdigris, the Negracka, Canadian river, Grand river, &c. Several are remarkable for being strongly impregnated with salt; the Arkansas itself, at certain seasons, is said to be brackish. The lands on this river for six or eight hundred miles up, are described as very fine and capable of affording settlements, though principally untimbered. For a long distance up, the flat lands on either side are intersected with numerous bayoux. There is a remarkable communication between the Arkansas and White river, by a channel or bayou connecting the two rivers with a current setting alternately into the one or the other, as the flood in either happens to predominate.

White River was little known until lately; it is one of the most considerable in the western country, and will one day be important. It rises in the Black mountains, which separate the waters of the Arkansas from those of the Missouri and Mississippi. Several of its branches interlock with those of the Osage river, the Maramek, and the St. Francis. It is navigable about twelve hundred miles, without any considerable interruption; eight hundred of these may be made with barges, the rest with canoes or smaller boats. The waters of this river are clear and limpid, the current gentle, and even in the driest season, plentifully supplied from the numerous and excellent springs which are every where found. It is not less remarkable for the many considerable rivers which it receives in its course. Black river is the largest of these; it enters on the north-east side, about four hundred miles up, and is navigable nearly five hundred miles, receiving a number of handsome rivers, as the Current, Eleven Point, and Spring rivers. The last merits a more particular description. It issues forth, suddenly, from an immense spring, two hundred yards in width, affording an uninterrupted navigation to its mouth, contracting its width, however, to fifty or sixty yards. It is about fifty miles in length.* This spring is full of the finest fish; bass, perch, pike, and others common in the western rivers. Besides this river, White river receives several others from one hundred and fifty to three hundred miles in length; as *Eaux Caché*, James river, *Rapid John*, and others known by various names.

The country watered by this river has only been traversed by Indians and hunters, and may be considered as still unexplored. It is described as being generally well wooded, and uncommonly abundant in springs and rivulets. The soil is said to be rich, though there are some places hilly and broken; some of the hills might be more properly termed mountains.

St. Francis discharges itself into the Mississippi seventy-five miles above White river, and would be navigable but for rafts which impede its course, for nine hundred miles. The western branch rises with the waters of White river, and the eastern, which is the principal, interlocks with Big river, of the Maramek, and runs nearly parallel with the Mississippi in its whole length, seldom receding more than fifty miles. Above it is a beautiful and limpid stream, passing through a charming country, but afterwards, though increased in size, by its junction with several other rivers, it flows with a slow and lazy current. The St. Francis communicates with a number of

* A town or village has been lately commenced at the mouth of this river.

lakes which lie between it and the Mississippi, formed by the streams which flow from the upland country, and lose themselves in the low grounds commencing at Cape Girardeau. This river receives several considerable streams, which rise between it and the Mississippi; the Pemisco, one of the principal, has its source near the Big prairie, eight or ten miles northwest of New Madrid; the St. Francis in high water, generally overflows its banks on that side to a great distance. The western bank is higher and much less subject to inundation.

Maramek is forty miles below the mouth of the Missouri, and heads with the Gasconade and the St. Francis. Passes generally through a broken country, the flats mostly narrow. It affords excellent navigation to its source, a distance of more than three hundred miles. The source of this river is considered a curiosity; it is a small lake formed from fountains issuing immediately around the spot. Big river, which winds through the Mine country, is the principal branch.

The *Gasconade* enters the Missouri about one hundred miles up, can be ascended in small boats nearly one hundred miles; but the navigation is not good on account of shoals and rapids. It passes through a hilly country, in which there probably exist mines.

Osage River is navigable about five hundred miles, though considerably impeded in places by shoals. It enters the Missouri 133 miles up. The principal navigable branches are Nangira, Grand river, the Fork, the Cooks river, Vermillion river. Country bordering, generally high prairie, but the bottoms are fine and sufficiently timbered for settlements. On the Nangira, about twenty miles from its mouth, there is a curious cascade of more than one hundred and fifty feet fall in the distance of four hundred yards; the water issues from a large spring and is precipitated over three different ledges of rocks, and falling to the bottom, is collected into a beautiful basin, from whence, it flows into this river, a considerable stream. A few miles below this place there is a great abundance of iron ore.

SOIL, FACE OF THE COUNTRY, &c....About twenty miles below Cape Girardeau, and thirty-five from the mouth of the Ohio, the limestone rock terminates abruptly, and there commences an immense plain, stretching with scarcely any interruption, to the Balize. It is successively traversed by the St. Francis, White river, Arkansas, Washita, and Red river. This flat may be considered, on an average, about thirty miles wide, and with hardly an exception, is without a hill, or a stone. The soil is generally rich, and has the appearance of being alluvial, though there is a greater proportion of sand than is usual, in the neighbourhood of the rivers.

It is worthy of observation, that from the *Maramek* to the mouth of the St. Francis, upwards of 500 miles, no river of any consequence empties into the Mississippi; the considerable rivers, as the St. Francis, Black river, and Osage, fall to the south-west, or to the Missouri.

In leaving the upland country, at Cape Girardieu, we enter what has been called the *great swamp*: though it does not properly possess this character. The timber is not such as is usually found in swamps, but fine oak, ash, olive, linn, beech, and poplar of enormous growth. The soil a rich black loam. In the fall it is nearly dry; the road which passes through being only muddy in particular spots: but during the season of high water it is extremely disagree-

able crossing it. The horse sinks at every step to the belly in water and loose soil; and in places entirely covered, the traveller, but for the marks on the trees, would be in danger of losing the road altogether. This swamp is sixty miles in length, and four broad, widening as it approaches the St. Francis. In the season of high water, the Mississippi and the river just mentioned, have a complete connection by means of this low land. After crossing the swamp, there commences a ridge of high land, running in the same course, and on the Mississippi, bounding what is called Tywapety bottom: this ridge, in approaching the St. Francis westward, subsides. In passing over it, we appear to be in a hilly country, possessing springs and rivulets; the soil, though generally poor and sandy, is tolerably well timbered, and not altogether unfit for tillage.

The soil of the prairie is more light and loose than in the woods, and has a greater mixture of sand: but, when wet, it assumes every where a deep black colour, and an oily appearance. After digging through a stratum of sand, there appears a kind of clay, of a dirty yellow, and of a saponaceous appearance; this is the substratum of the whole country, and is perhaps a kind of marle, the deposit of very ancient alluvia. No stones are met with.

The greatest objection to this country is the want of fountains and running streams. Water is procured in wells of the depth of twenty-five or thirty feet.

From Cape Girardeau to the Missouri, the country may be called hilly and broken, but with excellent flats, or bottoms, on the creeks and rivulets, of a width usually proportioned to the size of the stream.

The tract of country north of the Missouri, is less hilly than that on the south, but there is a much greater proportion of prairie. It has a waving surface, varied by those dividing ridges of streams, which in Kentucky are called *knobs*. The Missouri bottoms, alternately appearing on one side or other of the river, are of the finest kind for three hundred miles up, generally covered with heavy timber; the greatest part of which is cotton wood of enormous size. The bottoms are usually about two miles in width, and entirely free from inundation. Above this, in many places, after a small border of wood on the bank, the rest, to the hills or bluffs, is entirely bare. The bottoms of the Mississippi are equally extensive and rich, but not so well wooded. They are in fact a continued succession of the most beautiful prairies or meadows.

CLIMATE.... That variableness generally remarked respecting the climate of the United States, is particularly applicable to this territory. In the spring and winter, during the continuance of south-west winds, it is agreeably warm; but by the change of the wind to north-west, the most sudden alteration of weather is produced. The winters of St. Louis are usually more mild than in the same latitudes east of the Allegany mountains, but there are frequently several days in succession of greater cold than is known even in Canada. In January 1811, after several weeks of delightful weather, when the heat was even disagreeable, the thermometer standing at 78° , a change took place, and so sudden, that in 4 days it fell to 10° below 0° . This winter was also remarkable for a circumstance, which the oldest inhabitants do not recollect to have ever witnessed; the Mississippi closed over twice, whereas it most usually remains open during winter.

The season from the first of August to the last of September, is considered the most unhealthy.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS, INHABITANTS, SETTLEMENTS, POPULATION.... Shortly after the taking possession of this territory by the United States, it was divided into six districts :

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. St. Charles, | 4. Cape Girardeau, |
| 2. St. Louis, | 5. New Madrid, |
| 3. St. Genevieve, | 6. Arkansas. |

The territorial legislature has again subdivided these districts into townships. The term "district" corresponds with the county of the states.

The inhabitants are composed of whites, Indians, metiffs, a few civilized Indians, and negro slaves.

The whites consist of the ancient inhabitants, and of those who have settled since the change of government. The former are chiefly of French origin ; there were scarcely more than three or four Spanish families in this province, and the citizens of the United States, although advantageous offers were held out to them, rarely settled on this side of the river. The French inhabitants resided in villages, and cultivated common fields adjacent to them, in the manner of many parts of Europe : it was here, also, rendered in some degree necessary from their situation. There were always good reasons to apprehend the attacks of Indians ; of which, on some occasions, they had a fatal experience. For the five last years, the settlements have been increasing rapidly. The American mode of living on detached farms, has been adopted by a number of the French inhabitants of villages, and the settlements, in larger or smaller groups.

The frontier, at least below the Missouri, may be said to have retired, sixty miles west of the Mississippi, and the settlements on the rivers, are perfectly safe from the attacks of a savage enemy, should any be apprehended. Farms have been opened, from the Missouri to the Arkansas, on the Mississippi ; and on this river, above the Missouri, they extend, at distant intervals, to the Prairie du Chien. On the Missouri, they extend upwards of two hundred miles from the mouth of the river. Near Fort Clark, there are a few farms, which have lately been opened.

The emigrants to this territory are chiefly from North Carolina and Kentucky ; of late, the western part of Pennsylvania contributes considerably to its population. The excellence and cheapness of the lands, besides the permission of holding slaves, will cause this territory to be preferred by emigrants from the southern states, to any part of the western country, unless it be on the lower parts of the Mississippi, whose unhealthy climate, independent of the high price of lands, will counterbalance many other advantages.

The following is an abstract of the population of the territory, according to the last census :

St. Charles,	3,505
St. Louis,	5,667
St. Genevieve,	4,620
Cape Girardeau,	3,888
New Madrid,	3,103

Hope Field, }	
St. Francis, }	183
Arkansas,	874
	<hr/>
	21,845
Allow for the troops at the military posts in this territory,	200
Hunting and trading parties up the Missouri and Mississippi,	300
Families settled in remote places, and not found by the sheriff,	300
	<hr/>
	22,645

Of these, 8011 are slaves; the number of civilized Indians and of metiffs, not known, but cannot be considerable.

TOWNS AND VILLAGES....*St. Louis* is the seat of government of the territory, and has always been considered the principal town. It was formerly called Pain Court, from the privations of the first settlers. It is situated in lat. $38^{\circ} 23'$ north, long. $89^{\circ} 36'$ west. This place occupies one of the best situations on the Mississippi, both as to site and geographical position. The ground on which *St. Louis* stands is not much higher than the ordinary banks, but the floods are repelled by a bold shore of limestone rocks. The town is built between the river and a second bank, three streets running parallel with the river, and a number of others crossing these at right angles. In a disjointed and scattered manner it extends along the river a mile and a half. There is a line of works on the second bank, erected for defence against the Indians, consisting of several circular towers, twenty feet in diameter, and fifteen in height, a small stockaded fort, and a stone breast work. These are at present entirely unoccupied and waste, excepting the fort, in one of the buildings of which, the courts are held, while another is used as a prison. Some distance from the termination of this line, up the river, there are a number of Indian mounds, and remains of antiquity; which, while they are ornamental to the town, prove, that in former times, those places had also been chosen as the site, perhaps, of a populous city. *St. Louis* was first established in the spring of 1764. It was principally settled by the inhabitants who abandoned the village of Fort Chartres, on the east side of the Mississippi. The colony flourished, and became the parent of a number of little villages on the Mississippi and Missouri; Carondelet, *St. Charles*, Portage des Sioux, *St. Johns*, Bon Homme, *St. Ferdinand*, &c. The town contains, according to the last census, 1400 inhabitants; one-fifth Americans, and about 400 people of colour. There is a printing-office and twelve mercantile stores. The value of imports to this place in the course of the year, may be estimated at two hundred and fifty thousand dollars. The outfits for the different trading establishments, on the Mississippi or Missouri, are made here. The lead of the Sac mines is brought to this place; the troops at Belle Fontaine put sixty thousand dollars in circulation annually. The settlers in the vicinity on both sides of the river, repair to this place as the best market for their produce, and to supply themselves with such articles as they may need.

St. Genevieve is next in consequence to *St. Louis*. It is at present

the principal deposit of the lead, of Mine la Motte, the Mine à Burton, New Diggings, the mines on Big river, with several others; and is the store-house, from whence those engaged in working the mines are supplied with a variety of articles. This town was commenced about the year 1774. It is situated about one mile from the Mississippi, between the two branches of a stream called Gabourie, on a flat of about one hundred acres, and something higher than the river bottom. The population of St. Genevieve, including New Bourbon, amounts to 1400. There is about the same proportion of slaves as at St. Louis; the number of Americans is also about the same.

St. Charles, as well as the two places before described, is the seat of justice of the district bearing its name. It contains three hundred inhabitants, a considerable proportion of them Americans. It is situated on the north side of the Missouri, twenty miles from the junction. It is built on a very narrow space, between the river and the bluff, admitting but one street a mile in length.

New Madrid is the seat of justice of the district, and was formerly called *l'Anse à la gresse*. It is situated in $36^{\circ} 34$ north, longitude $89^{\circ} 20$ west. It was laid out twenty-four years ago, on an extensive scale, and an elegant plan. It was chosen as one of the best situations on the river. In 1812 it was nearly destroyed by an earthquake, but it is beginning to be re-established. In 1811 it contained four hundred inhabitants, one third Americans, living in a scattered way, over a great space of ground.

Arkansas is situated sixty miles up the river of the same name, and contains four hundred and fifty inhabitants; it has a few stores, and seems to be improving. There is a considerable trade with the Osages up the Arkansas, and with the Indians, who live in the White river country. This is also a French establishment, and with about the same proportion of Americans as in the other towns.

Cape Girardeau, the seat of justice for the district of that name, is situated thirty-five miles above the mouth of the Ohio. This town is entirely American, and built in their fashion. It is thriving fast: there are a number of good houses, several of them of brick. It contains about thirty dwellings, and three hundred inhabitants.

Herculaneum is situated on the Mississippi, half way between St. Louis and St. Genevieve. The site of this place is extremely romantic; at the mouth of the Joachin, and on a flat of no great width, between the river hill and second bank, while at each end, perpendicular precipices, two hundred feet high, rise almost from the water's edge. It appears to be an opening for the admission of the Joachin to the Mississippi. On the top of each of these cliffs, shot towers have been established. The town contains twenty houses, and two hundred inhabitants. Several fine mills have been erected in the neighbourhood of this place, and boat building is carried on here. Carondelet, or Vuidepoche, is situated six miles below St. Louis—218 inhabitants. Florissant on the Missouri, 270. Mine La Motte, 250—and a number of other small villages. A village has lately been commenced at the mouth of the St. Francis.

MINES, PRODUCE, &c.... The different lead mines, or *diggings*, as they are commonly called, are scattered over the greater part of this district. It is not known with certainty, to what distance the mineral extends west and south, or towards the Mississippi. The Mine à

Burton, about forty miles west of St. Genevieve, may be considered the centre of those which are profitably worked.

These mines have been known for a great many years; for the discovery would be made, as soon as the country could be traversed; the ore being visible in the ravines washed by rains, and in the beds of rivulets.

The following is an estimate from the best information we can procure, of the annual produce of the different mines, and of the number of persons engaged in them; without counting smelters, blacksmiths, and others.

	<i>lbs. lead.</i>	<i>hands.</i>
Mine à Burton,	50,000	15
New Diggings,	200,000	40
Perry's Diggings, }	60,000	50
Mine Liberty, &c. }		
Elliott's Diggings,	100,000	20
Mines of Belle Fontaine,	300,000	50
Bryan's Diggings,	600,000	70
Richwoods,	75,000	30
Mine à La Motte,	100,000	40
Fourche Courtois,	10,000	15
Mine à Robins, and }	30,000	20
Mine à Joe }		
	<hr/> 1,525,000	<hr/> 350

From this some estimate may be formed of the produce of these mines. When they come to be extensively worked, there is not a doubt but that they will be able to supply the United States, not only with a sufficient quantity for home consumption, but also with an immense surplus for commerce.

RESOURCES, AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, TRADE....Nature has been more bountiful to this territory, than perhaps to any part of the western country. It possesses all the advantages of the states of Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee, with many which they have not. Proximity to the great mart of the west, will enable the produce of this territory to be the first in arriving, and consequently to bring the highest prices.

The agriculture of this territory will be very similar to that of Kentucky, except, that south of the 35° of latitude, cotton may be grown to advantage, and nearly as high as the Missouri, for home consumption. The soil, or climate, of no part of the United States, is better adapted to the growth of wheat, rye, barley, and every species of grain. Rice and indigo may be cultivated in many parts of it: and no part of the western country surpasses it for the culture of tobacco, hemp, and flax. Except the fig, orange, and a few other fruits, every species known in any part of the United States is cultivated to advantage. There are no where finer apples, peaches, pears, cherries, plums, quinces, grapes, melons, &c.

The manufactures which might be established are various and important. The immense quantity and cheapness of lead, naturally point out this country as the proper one for the different manufactures of that mineral: sheet lead, shot, red and white lead, &c. The

abundance of iron ore, on the Maramek, St. Francis, and Osage rivers, will at no distant period, encourage the establishment of furnaces and forges. The different manufactures of hemp, requisite for the lower country, may be here carried on to advantage. There is a great abundance of the finest timber for boat or ship building; in this respect, the situation of the territory has decided advantages over the rest of the western country.

The staple articles of trade, are at present, lead, peltry, cotton, tobacco, and live stock. It will not be long before there will be added to these, the manufactures of lead, hemp, and cotton, besides the raw materials themselves; also, iron, salt-petre, and coal, wheat, flour, apples, cider, whiskey, pickled pork, and beef, and a variety of other articles of less importance.

WEST INDIES.

WE have already observed, that between the two continents of America lie a multitude of islands which we call the West Indies, and which, such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. As the climate and seasons of these islands differ widely from what we can form any idea of by what we perceive at home, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them in general, and mention some other particulars that are peculiar to the West Indies.

The climate in all the West India islands is nearly the same, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the sun goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the north, they are continually subjected to the extreme of a heat which would be intolerable, if the trade wind, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner, as to enable the cultivator to attend to his business, even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows smartly from the land, as it were from the centre, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

In the same manner, when the sun advances towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, as shield the earth from his direct beams; and dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty with the long drought which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the West Indies (and we may add in the East Indies) are by no means so moderate as in Europe. Their heaviest rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuosity; the rivers rise in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a short time all the low country is under water.* Hence it is, the rivers which have their source within the tropics, swell and overflow their banks at a certain season; but so mistaken were the ancients in their idea of the Torrid Zone, that they imagined it to be dried and scorched up with a continued and fervent heat, and to be for that reason uninhabitable; when, in reality, some of the largest rivers of the world have their course within its limits, and the moisture is one of the greatest inconveniences of the climate in several places.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no frosts, no snows, and but rarely some hail; the storms of hail are, however,

* See Watson's Journey across the Isthmus of Darien.

very violent when they happen, and the hail stones very large and heavy.

It is in the rainy season (principally in the month of August, more rarely in July and September) that they are assaulted by hurricanes, the most terrible calamity to which they are subject from the climate; these destroy, at a stroke, the labours of many years, and prostrate the hopes of the planter often just at the moment when he thinks himself out of the reach of fortune. The hurricane is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious swelling of the seas, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short, with every circumstance which the elements can assemble, that is terrible and destructive. First, they see, as the prelude to the ensuing havoc, whole fields of sugar-canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country; the strongest trees of the forests are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble; their wind-mills are swept away in a moment; their utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and stills of several hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houses are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blast; whilst the rain which in an hour rises five feet, rushes in upon them with irresistible violence.

The grand staple commodity of the West Indies is sugar: this commodity was not known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, from whence we had the first knowledge of it; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. It is not agreed whether the cane from which this substance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought thither, to their colony of Brazil, by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa; but, however that may be, in early times they made the most, as they still do the best sugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the sugar cane is the most lively and least cloying sweet in nature, and, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses, rum is distilled, and from the scummings of sugar, a meaner spirit is procured. Rum finds its principal market in the United States, where it is consumed by the inhabitants, or re-exported. However, a very great quantity of molasses is taken off raw, and carried to New England to be distilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for cattle; and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

It is computed that, when things are well managed, the rum and molasses pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars we have seen, and by others which we may easily imagine, the expences of a plantation in the West Indies are very great, and the profits, at the first view, precarious: for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and distilling houses, and the buying and subsisting a suitable number of slaves and cattle, will not suffer any man to begin a sugar plantation of any consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least 25,000 dollars. There are, however, no parts of the world in which great estates are made in so short a time, from the productions of the earth, as in the West Indies. The produce of a few good seasons generally provides against

the ill effects of the worst; as the planter is sure of a speedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier sale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overseer, who has commonly a salary of 150*l.* a year, with overseers under him in proportion to the extent of the plantation; one to about thirty negroes, with a salary of about 40*l.* Such plantations too, have a surgeon at a fixed salary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the course which is the least troublesome to the owner of the estate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the stock of cattle and slaves to a tenant, who gives security for the payment of rent, and the keeping up repairs and stock. The estate is generally estimated to such a tenant at half the net produce of the best years. Such tenants, if industrious and frugal men, soon make good estates for themselves.

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: some are subsisted in this manner; but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea and Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork, a day. All the rest of the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profit of their labour yields 10*l.* or 12*l.* annually. There are instances of a single negro man, expert in business, bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

To particularise the commodities proper for the West India market, would be to enumerate all the necessities, conveniences, and luxuries of life; for they have little of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, spices, and the commodities already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they sell: but from the numerous shipping constantly arriving from Europe, and a continual succession of new adventurers, each of whom carry out more or less as a venture, the West India market is frequently overstocked; money must be raised, and goods are sometimes sold at prime cost or under. But those who can afford to store their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftsmen, especially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the West Indies, that physicians and surgeons even outdo the planter and merchant in accumulating riches.

The present state of the population in the British West Indies appears to be about 65,000 whites, and 455,000 blacks. There is likewise in each of the islands a considerable number of mixed blood, and native blacks of free condition. In Jamaica they are reckoned at 10,000; and they do not fall short of the same number in all the other islands collectively taken. The whole inhabitants therefore, may properly be divided into four great classes: 1, European whites; 2, Creole or native whites; 3, Creoles of mixed blood and free native blacks; 4, Negroes in a state of slavery.

The islands in the West Indies lie in the form of a bow, or semi-circle, stretching almost from the coast of Florida north, to the river Oronoque, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the first inhabitants: though this is a term that most geographers confine to the Leeward Islands. Sailors distin-

guish them into Windward and Leeward Islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships from Old Spain or the Canaries, to Carthagena, or New Spain and Porto Bello. The geographical tables and maps distinguish them into the great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA....This island, which is the first belonging to Great Britain, and also the most important that we arrive at after leaving Florida, lies between the 76th and 79th degrees of west longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude. From the east and west it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in breadth, growing less towards each end, in the form of an egg. It contains 4,080,000 acres, of which 900,000 were planted in 1675; and in November 1789 there were no more than 1,907,589 acres located, or taken up by grants from the crown.

This island is intersected with a ridge of steep rocks, heaped by the frequent earthquakes in a stupendous manner upon one another. These rocks, though containing no soil on their surface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flourishing in a perpetual spring: they are nourished by the rains which often fall, or the mists which continually hang on the mountains; and their roots, penetrating the crannies of the rocks, industriously seek out for their own support. From the rocks issue a vast number of small rivers of pure wholesome waters, which tumble down in cataracts, and, together with the stupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees, through which they flow, form a most delightful landscape. On each side of this chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminish as they remove from it. On these coffee grows in great plenty. The vallies or plains between those ridges are level beyond what is ordinary in most other countries, and the soil is prodigiously fertile.

The longest day in summer is about thirteen hours, and the shortest in winter about eleven; but the most usual divisions of the seasons in the West Indies are into the dry and wet seasons. The air of this island is, in most places, excessively hot, and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cool sea-breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable: and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which, when it happens, is very terrible, and roars with astonishing loudness; and the lightning in these violent storms frequently does great damage. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spanish town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ache, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible endemial distempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the principal and most valuable production of this island. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to a great extent. It produces also ginger and the pimento, or, as it is called, Jamaica pepper; the wild cinnamon tree, whose bark is so useful in medicine; the manchineel, whose fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains a most virulent poison; the mahogany, in such use with our cabinet makers, and of the most valuable quality; but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear: excellent cedars, of a large size, and durable; the cabbage tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields

to any kind of tool; the palma, affording oil, much esteemed by the natives, both in food and medicine; the soap tree whose berries answer all the purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive bark, useful to tanners; the fustic and red wood, to the dyers; and lately the log-wood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton tree is still so. No sort of European grain grows here; they have only maize or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, with a variety of roots. Fruits, as has been already observed, grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadoocks, pomegranates, mamees, soursops, papas, pine apples, custard apples, star apples, prickly pears, all-cada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and several kinds of berries, also garden vegetables in great plenty and good. Jamaica likewise supplies the apothecary with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds. The cattle bred on this island are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable: they have great plenty of hogs; many plantations have hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceedingly sweet and delicate. Their horses are small, mettlesome, and hardy. Among the animals are the land and sea-turtle, and the alligator. Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides, paroquets, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea-hens, geese, ducks and turkeys; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish. The mountains breed numerous adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and the gallewasp; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous or membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and sometimes of the white people. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as the person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or point of a penknife; taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They sometimes get into the toes, and eat the flesh to the very bone.

This island was originally a part of the Spanish empire in America. Several descents had been made upon it by the English, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year that Jamaica was reduced under their dominion. Cromwell had fitted out a squadron, under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spanish island of Hispaniola, but there this squadron was unsuccessful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a descent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital, St. Jago, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. Ever since it has been subject to the English; and the government of it is one of the richest places, next to that of Ireland, in the disposal of the crown, the standing salary being 2500*l.* per annum, and the assembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with the other perquisites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000*l.* per annum.

We have already observed, that the government of all the British American islands is the same, namely, that kind which we have formerly described under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is universally of the church of England; though they have

no bishop, the bishop of London's commissary being the chief religious magistrate in those parts.

Jamaica is divided into three counties, Middlesex, Surry, and Cornwall, which contain, in the whole, twenty parishes. The town of Port-Royal, which now has not above 200 houses, was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It stood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thousand sail of large ships, and of such depth as to allow them to load and unload with the greatest ease, induced the inhabitants to build their capital on this spot, though the place was a hot dry sand, and produced none of the necessaries of life, not even fresh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the resort of pirates, made it a place of great consideration. These pirates were called buccaneers; they fought with inconsiderate bravery, and then spent their fortune in this capital with as inconsiderate dissipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its size, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, so as to leave, in one quarter, not even the smallest vestige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and swallowed up nine-tenths of the houses, and two thousand people. The water gushed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but some of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houses, and were afterwards saved by boats. Several ships were wrecked in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of sinking houses, and did not upset, but afforded a retreat to some hundreds of people, who saved their lives upon her. An officer who was in the town at this time, says, the earth opened and shut very quick in some places, and he saw several people sink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads just above ground, and were squeezed to death. At Savannah, above a thousand acres were sunk with the houses and people in them; the place, appearing for some time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houses were seen. In some parts mountains were split; and at one place a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but it was a second time, ten years after, destroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more in 1722, was it laid in rubbish by a hurricane, the most terrible on record. Such repeated calamities seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants, therefore, resolved to forsake it for ever, and to remove to the opposite side of the bay, where they built Kingston, which has become the capital of the island. It consists of upwards of sixteen hundred houses, many of them handsomely built, and, in the taste of these islands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one story high, with porticoes, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. The number of inhabitants is between 26 and 27,000. Kingston now ranks as a city. having been incorporated by charter bearing date January 12, 1803. Not far from Kingston stands St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish-Town; which, though at present inferior to Kingston, not containing more than 3000 inhabitants, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is

still the seat of government, and the place where the courts of justice are held.

On the 3d of October, 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almost overwhelmed the little sea port town of Savanna la Mar, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houses were left standing, and a great number of lives were lost. Much damage was also done, and many persons perished, in other parts of the island.

The number of white inhabitants in this island in 1787, was 30,000; freed negroes 10,000; maroons 1400; and slaves 250,000; in all 291,400. The population in 1811, consisted of 40,000 whites, and 350,000 blacks; total 390,000. The value of this island as British property is estimated as follows; 250,000 negroes, at 50*l.* sterling each, twelve millions and a half; the landed and personal property, and buildings to which they are appurtenant, twenty-five millions more; the houses and property in the towns, and the vessels employed in trade, one million and a half; in all thirty-nine millions. The exports of Jamaica for one year, ending the 5th of January, 1788, amounted in sterling money to 2,136,442*l.* 17*s.* 3*d.* In 1787, the exports to the United States amounted to 60,095*l.* 18*s.* and importations from the United States to the value of 90,000*l.*

The whole produce of the island may be reduced to these heads: First, sugars, of which article was exported to Great Britain in 1787, 824,706 cwt. In 1790, 1,185,519 cwt. Most of this goes to London, Bristol, and Glasgow, and some part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, peas, staves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from hence. Second, rum, of which they export about four thousand puncheons. The rum of this island is generally esteemed the best, and is the most used in Great Britain. Third, molasses, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vast distilleries. All these are the produce of the grand staple, the sugar cane. According to the late testimony of a respectable planter in Jamaica, that island has 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of sugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconsiderable; but some cocoa and coffee are exported, with a considerable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, sweetmeats, mahogany, and manchineel planks. But some of the most considerable articles of their trade are with the Spanish continent of New Spain and Terra-Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they carry on a vast and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods.

BARBADOES.—This island, the most easterly of all the Caribbees, is situate in 59 degrees west longitude, and 13 degrees north latitude. It is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. It contains 106,470 acres of land, most of which is under cultivation; and is divided into five districts and eleven parishes, and contains four towns; Bridgetown, the capital, where the governor resides; Ostins, or Charlestown; St. James's, formerly called the Hole; and Speight's-town. When the English, some time after the year 1625, first landed here, they found it the most savage and destitute place they had hitherto visited. It had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled even by savages. There was no kind of beasts of pasture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for supporting the life of

man. Yet, as the climate was so good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortunes in England resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable support; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the soil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably. These prospects, together with the disputes between the king and parliament, which were beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to transport themselves into this island. And what is extremely remarkable, so great was the increase of people in Barbadoes, twenty-five years after its first settlement, that in 1650 it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negroes and Indian slaves: the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they seized upon all those unhappy men without any pretence, in the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate sugar, which soon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of the slaves therefore was still augmented; and in 1676, it was supposed that their number amounted to 100,000; which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 on this small spot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world most renowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employed 400 sail of ships, one with another, of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports, in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron water, were above 350,000*l.* and their circulating cash at home was 200,000*l.* Such was the increase of population, trade, and wealth, in the course of fifty years. But since that time this island has been much on the decline; which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French sugar colonies, and partly to the British establishments in the neighbouring isles. In 1786 the numbers were 16,167 whites; 838 free people of colour; and 62,115 negroes. Their commerce consists in the same articles as formerly, though they deal in them to less extent. The exports on an average of the years 1784, 1785, 1786, were 9554 hogsheads of sugar; 5448 puncheons of rum; 6320 bags of ginger; 8331 bags of cotton, exclusive of small articles, as aloes, sweetmeats, &c. In 1787, 243 vessels cleared outwards, and the London market price of their cargoes amounted to 539,605*l.* 14*s.* 16*d.* of which the value exported to the United States was 23,217*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* Here is a college (the only one in the West Indies) founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has suffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague. On the 10th of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane occasioned vast devastation in Barbadoes: great numbers of dwellings were destroyed, not one house in the island was wholly free from damage, many persons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and many more were driven into the sea, and there perished. By this storm no less than 4326 of the inhabitants lost their lives; and the damage done to the property was computed at 1,320,564*l.*

ST. CHRISTOPHERS.... This island, commonly called by the sailors St. Kitt's, is situate in 62 degrees west longitude, and 17 degrees north latitude, about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is 20 miles long and 7 broad. It has its name from the famous Christopher Co-

lumbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention : and in 1626 it was settled by the French and English conjointly, but entirely ceded to the latter by the peace of Utrecht. Great quantities of indigo were formerly raised here. In 1770 the exports amounted to above 419,000*l.* sterling in sugar, molasses, and rum, and near 8000*l.* for cotton. Besides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it produced in 1787, 231,397 cwt. of sugar, but in 1790 only 113,000 cwt. It is computed that this island contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 negroes. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but was restored again to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783. The capital is Basseterre.

ANTIGUA.... Situate in 61 degrees west longitude, and 17 degrees north latitude, is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. This island, which was formerly thought useless, is now preferred to any of the rest of the English harbours, being the best and safest as a dock yard and an establishment for the royal navy. St. John's is the port of greatest trade ; and this capital, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward Islands. In 1774, the white inhabitants of Antigua, of all ages and sexes, were 2500, and the enslaved negroes 37,808.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.... Two small islands lying between St. Christopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference. In the former of these islands the present number of whites is stated not to exceed 600, while the negroes amount to about 10,000 ; a disproportion which necessarily converts all such white men as are not exempted by age and decrepitude into a well-regulated militia, among which there is a troop consisting of fifty horse, well mounted and accoutred. English forces on the British establishment, they have none. The inhabitants of Montserrat amount to 1300 whites and about 10,000 negroes. The soil in these islands is pretty much alike, light and sandy, but, notwithstanding, fertile in a high degree ; and their principal exports are derived from the sugar cane. Both were taken by the French in the year 1782, but restored at the ensuing peace.

BARBUDA.... Situate in 18 degrees north latitude, and 62 degrees west longitude, 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has an indifferent road for shipping ; but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in husbandry, and raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA.... Situate in 19 degrees north latitude, 60 miles north-west of St. Christopher's, is about 30 miles long and 10 broad. This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themselves to husbandry, and feeding of cattle.

DOMINICA.... Situate in 16 degrees north latitude, and in 62 west longitude, lies about half way between Guadaloupe and Martinico. It is near 28 miles in length, and 16 in breadth : it received its name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The soil of this island is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than sugar ; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West Indies, and the island is well supplied with rivulets of fine water. On account of its situation between the principal French islands, and Prince

Rupert's Bay, being one of the most capacious in the West Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itself, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but restored again to Great Britain by the peace of 1783.

ST. VINCENT.....Situate in 13 degrees north latitude, and 61 degrees west longitude, 50 miles north west of Barbadoes, 30 miles south of St. Lucia, is about 17 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a strong loam, the most proper for the raising of sugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is less cultivated than formerly throughout the West Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here are also fugitives from Barbadoes and the other islands. The Caribbeans were treated with so much injustice and severity, after this island came into possession of the English, to whom it was ceded by the peace of 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get possession of it again in 1779; but it was restored to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783.

GRANADA AND THE GRANADINES..Granada is situate in 12 degrees north latitude, and 62 degrees west longitude, about 30 leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of New Andalusia on the Spanish Main. This island is 28 miles in length, and 13 in breadth. Experience has proved that the soil is extremely proper for producing sugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it is as flourishing a colony as any in the West Indies of its dimensions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the island, supplies it with numerous streams, which adorn and fertilise it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, which render it very convenient for shipping; and it is not subject to hurricanes. St. George's bay has a sandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour or careening place, one hundred large vessels may be moored with perfect safety. This island was taken by the French in 1762; confirmed to the English in 1763; taken by the French in 1779; and restored to the English in 1783. In 1795, the French landed some troops, and raised an insurrection here, which was not finally quelled till June, 1796.

TRINIDAD...Situate between 59 and 62 degrees west longitude, and in 10 degrees north latitude, lies between the island of Tobago and the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the straits of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthy but fruitful soil, producing sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and some cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the island and extorted money from the inhabitants. It was captured by the British arms in February, 1797; and finally ceded to England by the treaty of Amiens.

VIRGIN ISLANDS....A number of small islands between Porto Rico and the Leeward Caribbee islands, in about 18 degrees of north latitude. The Spaniards gave them the name of the Virgin Islands, in honour of the 11,000 virgins of the legend. They belong principally to the English and the Danes, though the Spaniards claim some small ones near Porto Rico. Tortola, the principal of those which belong to the English, is about 18 miles long and seven broad; it

produces excellent cotton, sugar, and rum. Vigin Gorda, another of these islands belonging to the English, is about the same size. The islands of St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix, which are a part of this groupe, belong to the Danes.

LUCAYOS, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS....The Bahamas are situate to the south of Carolina, between 12 and 27 degrees north latitude, and 73 and 81 degrees west longitude. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to the isle of Cuba; and are said to be 500 in number, some of them only mere rocks; but 12 of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the soil of Carolina: they are, however, almost uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles east of the Floridas; though some others are larger and more fertile, on which the English have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the gulf of Bahama, or Florida. These islands were the first fruits of Columbus's discoveries; but they were not known to the English till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his passage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a second time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The English, observing the advantageous situation of these islands, for a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to settle on them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky incidents prevented this settlement from being of any advantage, and the Isle of Providence became a harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infested the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to send out captain Woodes Rogers, with a fleet, to dislodge the pirates, and for making a settlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was stationed in the island. Ever since this last settlement, these islands have been improving, though they advance but slowly. In time of war, people gain considerably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and shelves. The Spaniards captured these islands during the American war; but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Augustine, April 7, 1783,

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 } Breadth 600 }	between	{ 83 and 110 West longitude. 8 and 30 North latitude. }		318,000

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS....Bounded by New Mexico, or Granada, on the north ; by the gulf of Mexico, on the north east ; by Terra Firma, on the south-east ; by the Pacific Ocean on the south-west. It contains three audiences, viz.

Audiences.	Chief Towns.
1. Galitia, or Guadalajara	{ Guadalajara MEXICO, W. long. 100° N. lat, 19° 25'.
2. Mexico Proper . . .	{ Acapulco Vera Cruz
3. Guatimala . . .	{ Guatimala*

BAYS....On the North Sea are the gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras ; in the Pacific Ocean or South Sea, are the bays of Micoya and Amapallo, Acapulco, and Salinas.

WINDS....In the Gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent seas, there are strong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every where at a distance from land within the tropics. Near the coast, in the South Sea, they have periodical winds, viz. monsoons, and sea and land breezes, as in Asia.

RIVERS, LAKES....This country has many large rivers, some of which run into the Gulf of Mexico, and others into the Pacific Ocean. Among the former are the Alvarado, the Coatzacualco and the Tabasco ; among the latter is the Guadalaxara, or great river. The principal lakes are those of Nicaragua, Chappalan, and Pazaquarro ; those of Tetzuco and Chalco occupy a great part of the vale of Mexico, which is the finest tract of country in New Spain. The waters of Chalco are sweet ; those of Tetzuco brackish. These two lakes are

* This city was swallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June, 1773, when eight thousand families instantly perished. New Guatimala is built at some distance, and is well inhabited.

united by a canal. The lower lake, or lake Tetzuco, was formerly 20 miles long and 17 broad; and lying at the bottom of the vale, is the reservoir of all the waters from the surrounding mountains. The city of Mexico stands on an island in this lake.

METALS. MINERALS... Mexico abounds in mines of gold and silver, of the latter of which it is said they reckon above 1000. Gold is also found in the brooks and rivers, as well as in the mines. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Those of silver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in several parts, but in none so much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the most barren and mountainous parts of the country; nature making amends in one respect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and silver mines depends on the same principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of several heterogeneous substances mixed with the precious metals, it is broken into small pieces by a mill, and afterwards washed, by which means it is disengaged from the earth, and other soft bodies which clung to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all substances, has the strongest attraction for gold; and likewise a stronger attraction for silver than the other substances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and silver are first separated from the heterogeneous matter, and then, by straining and evaporation, they are disunited from the mercury itself. It has been computed that the revenues of Mexico amount to twenty-four millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spanish America, supply the whole world with silver. The mountains of Mexico likewise abound in mines of iron, copper, and lead. Here are also found various kinds of precious stones; as emeralds, turquoises, amethysts, and a few diamonds. Mineral springs are likewise abundant.

CLIMATE, SOIL... Mexico, lying for the most part within the torrid zone, is excessively hot; and on the eastern coast, where the land is low, marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy seasons; it is likewise extremely unwholesome. The inland country, however, assumes a better aspect, and the air is of a milder temperament. On the western side the land is not so low as on the eastern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The soil of Mexico in general is of a good variety; and would not refuse any sort of grain, were the industry of the inhabitants to correspond with their natural advantages.

PRODUCE... Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa nuts, are here in the greatest plenty and perfection. Mexico produces also a prodigious quantity of sugar, especially towards the gulf of Mexico, and the provinces of Guaxaca and Guatemala; so that here are more sugar-mills than in any other part of Spanish America. Cedar-trees and logwood abound about the bays of Campeachy and Honduras: the maho-tree also, which has a bark with such strong fibres that they twist and make ropes of it. They have also a tree which is called light-wood, being as light as cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandise on the sea-coasts. But the two most valuable products of this country, next to its gold and silver, are cochineal and cocoa.

The former is of the animal kind, and of the species of the gall insects. It adheres to the plant called opuntia; and sucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimson colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value; which consists in dyeing all sorts of the finest scarlet, crimson, and purple. It is also used in medicine as a sudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no less than nine hundred thousand pounds weight of this commodity to answer the purposes of medicine and dyeing. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, grows on a tree of a middling size, which bears a pod about the size and shape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spanish commerce in this article is immense; and such is the general consumption, as well as the external call for it, that a small garden of cocoa trees is said to produce to the owner twenty thousand crowns a year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholesome, nutritious, and suitable to the climate. This country likewise produces silks, but not in such quantity as to make any remarkable part of its export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and, on account of its lightness, is the common wear of the inhabitants.

ANIMALS....Horses, asses, sheep, goats, hogs, dogs, and cats, have been transported into this country from the old continent, and have all multiplied. Horned cattle are found wild, in herds of from 30 to 40,000, and are killed merely for the sake of their hides. Among the native animals are the puma and jaguar, or American lion and tiger: the Mexican or hunchback dog, a kind of porcupine; wild cats, foxes, squirrels, and armadillos. The prodigious number of birds, their variety and qualities, have occasioned some authors to observe, that as Africa is the country of beasts, so Mexico is the country of birds. It is said there are 200 species peculiar to this part of America.

POPULATION....The population of Mexico has been estimated at 500,000 Spaniards, one million of negroes and mulattoes, and two millions of native Indians. The number of inhabitants in all the Spanish provinces in North America has been computed at about seven millions; of whom the Spaniards are supposed to amount to one million, the native Indians to four millions, and the persons of mixed races to two millions.

CHARACTER OF INHABITANTS....We have already described the original inhabitants of Mexico, and the conquest of that country by the Spaniards. The present inhabitants may be divided into whites, Indians, and negroes. The whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are Creoles, *i. e.* natives of Spanish America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the same character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a still greater portion of pride, for they consider themselves as entitled to very high distinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The Creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are descended, without that courage, firmness, and patience, which constitute the praise-worthy part of the Spanish character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greatest part of their lives to loitering and inactive pleasures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expensive with great parade and little convenience, their general character is no more than a grave and specious insignificance. From idleness and constitution, their whole business is amour and intrigue; and their ladies of consequence, are not at all distinguished for their chastity and domestic

virtues. The Indians, who, notwithstanding the devastations of the first invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppressions and indignity, a dejected, timorous, and miserable race of mortals. The negroes here, like those in other parts of the world, are stubborn, hardy, and as well adapted for the slavery they endure as any human creatures can be. Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greatest part of Spanish America.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES....The city of Mexico, the capital of this part of Spanish America, is situate in the delightful vale of Mexico, on several small islands in the lake Tetzuco. It is built with admirable regularity, the streets being straight and crossing each other at right angles. It is the see of an archbishop, and contains 29 churches and 22 monasteries and nunneries; there is also a tribunal of the inquisition, a mint, and a university. All the public edifices, especially the churches, are magnificent, and the most profuse display of wealth is seen in every part of the city. The number of inhabitants, by a late accurate enumeration made by the magistrates and priests, exceeds 200,000.

Vera Cruz, situate on the Gulph of Mexico, is the great commercial port of New Spain. It is perhaps one of the most considerable places for trade in the world; being the centre of the American treasure, and the magazine for all the merchandize sent from New Spain, or that is transported thither from Europe. It is however, unhealthy, from the marshy ground in which it stands; most of the houses are of wood; and the inhabitants, it is said, do not exceed 3000.

Acapulco is situate on a bay of the Pacific Ocean, and is the chief port on this sea, the harbour being so spacious that several hundred ships may ride in it without inconvenience opposite to the town; on the east side is a high and strong castle, with guns of a large size. It is a place of great trade, in consequence of being the port from which the galleon annually sails for Manilla.

COMMERCE....The trade of this country is immense. From the port of Vera Cruz, Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world; and receives in return the numberless luxuries and necessities which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themselves. To this port (before the galleons were laid aside, and the subsequent new arrangements) the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of three men of war as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ships, annually arrived about the beginning of November. Its cargo consisted of every commodity and manufacture of Europe; and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little more than wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, are almost the only advantages which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods were landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet took in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities, for Europe. Some time in May they were ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they sailed to the Havanna, in the isle of Cuba; which was the rendezvous where they met the galleons, another fleet, which carried on the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all were collected, and provided with a convoy necessary for their safety, they steered for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the sea-port by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spanish empire in America and the East Indies. About the month of December the great galleon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, annually arrived here. The cargoes of these ships (for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewise carried goods) consisted of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the East. At the same time the annual ship from Lima, the capital of Peru, came in, and was not computed to bring less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quicksilver, and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchase of the galleon's cargoes. Several other ships, from different parts of Chili and Peru, met upon the same occasion. A great fair in which the commodities of all parts of the world were bartered for one another, lasted thirty days. The galleon then prepared for her voyage, loaded with silver, and such European goods as had been thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade was carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, were comparatively but small gainers by it. For as they allowed the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial states, to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the flota, so the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the same indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permitted the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galleon. Since 1748, however, the galleons have been laid aside; and smaller vessels, called register ships employed. In 1764, monthly packets were established between Corunna and the Havanna. The trade to Cuba, as also to Yucatan and Campeachy, has been laid open to all Spain; and in 1774, a free intercourse was permitted between Mexico and Peru. This liberal policy will, no doubt, considerably increase the trade and wealth of these countries.

GOVERNMENT...The civil government of Mexico is administered by tribunals called audiences, which bear a resemblance to the old parliaments in France. In these courts the viceroy of the king of Spain presides. His employment is the greatest trust and power which his catholic majesty has in his disposal, and is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. The greatness of the viceroy's office is diminished by the shortness of its duration: for as jealousy is the leading feature of Spanish politics in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to retain his power for more than three years; which, no doubt, may have a good effect in securing the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy consequences to the miserable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor.

RELIGION...The established religion of this country, and throughout Spanish America, is the Roman catholic, in all its bigotry and superstition. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico; and it has been computed that priests, monks, and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spanish America. The people are superstitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with such materials to work upon, it is not remarkable that the church should enjoy one-fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom.

HISTORY...The history of Mexico has already been given in our account of the discovery and conquest of America.

NEW MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	2000	} between	{ 94 and 126 West longitude. }		600,000
Breadth	1400		{ 23 and 43 North latitude. }		

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by unknown lands on the north ; by Louisiana on the east ; by Old Mexico, and the Pacific Ocean, on the south ; and by the same ocean on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
North East division, New Mexico Proper,	{	Santa Fé W. long. 104°
South East division, Apacheira.		North lat. 36°.
South division,	Sonora,	St. Antonio.
Western division,	California, a peninsula,	Tuape.
		St. Juan.

CLIMATE, SOIL....These countries, lying for the most part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a soil productive of every thing either for profit or delight. In California, however, the heat is great in summer, particularly towards the sea coast ; but in the inland country the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, PRODUCE....The natural history of these countries is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know little of them, and the little they know they are unwilling to communicate. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California are extremely beautiful and pleasant ; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, intersected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds of trees, some producing excellent fruit. With respect to the value of the gold mines in these countries nothing positive can be asserted. Their natural productions are undoubtedly sufficient to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, settling on the rose leaves, candies and becomes hard like manna, having all the sweetness of refined sugar without its whiteness. There is also another very singular production : in the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm, and clear as crystal ; which, considering the vast quantities of fish found on the coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to any industrious nation.

INHABITANTS, GOVERNMENT....The Spanish settlements here are comparatively weak ; though they are increasing every day, in proportion as new mines are discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, to a civilized life, and to raise corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico.

HISTORY....California was discovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico. The famous English navigator, Sir Francis Drake, took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king or chief in the whole country. This title, however, the government of Great Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably situate for trade, and on its coast has a pearl fishery of great value.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600	} between	80 and 91 West longitude.	} 60,000
Breadth 400		25 and 32 North latitude.	

BOUNDARIES....This country is bounded by Georgia on the north; by the Mississippi territory on the west; by the gulf of Mexico on the south; and by the Bahama Straits on the east.

RIVERS....The principal of these in East Florida is the St. John's; including its turnings and windings, it is supposed to run a course of more than 300 miles. The Apalachicola separates east from West Florida. The Nassau, St. Nicholas, Corelia, St. Pedro, Asilla, Vilches, and St. Marks, are among the other most considerable streams.

METALS, MINERALS....This country produces iron ore, copper, quick-silver, and pit-coal: amethysts, turquoises, and other precious stones, it is said, have also been found here.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE....The climate is little different from that of Georgia. The soil is various in different parts. East Florida near the sea, and forty miles back, is flat and sandy. But even the country round St. Augustine, in all appearance the worst in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees grow here, without cultivation, to a large size, and produce better fruit than in Spain and Portugal. The inland country, towards the hills, is extremely rich and fertile; producing spontaneously the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas, and is likewise favourable to the rearing of European productions. This country also produces rice, indigo, and cochineal: mahogany grows on the southern parts of the peninsula, but inferior in size and quality to that of Jamaica.

ANIMALS....Horses, cattle, sheep, and hogs, are numerous, especially in the western part of this country. Among the wild animals are the buffalo, panther, wild-cat, otter, racoon, flying squirrel, opossum, armadillo, and several kinds of serpents. Birds are in great variety, and numerous; and the rivers abound in fish, but are, at the same time, infested with voracious alligators.

CHIEF TOWNS....The chief town in West Florida is Pensacola, north latitude $30^{\circ} 22'$, west longitude $87^{\circ} 20'$; which is situated within the bay of the same name, on a sandy shore that can only be approached by small vessels. The road is, however, one of the best in all the gulf of Mexico; in which ships may lie in safety against any kind of wind, being surrounded by land on every side.

St. Augustine, the capital of East Florida, north latitude $29^{\circ} 45'$, west longitude $81^{\circ} 12'$, runs along the shore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular streets, crossing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and enclosed with a ditch. It is likewise defended by a castle, which is called fort St. John; and the whole is furnished with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and south breakers, which form two channels, whose bars, at low tides, have eight feet water.

GOVERNMENT....The government is in general like that of the other Spanish colonies in America; but all the settlers from the United States, or other countries, are under the immediate orders of the military commandants, and subject to martial law, with an appeal, from stage to stage, up to the viceroy of Mexico.

HISTORY....This country was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1497. It has frequently changed masters, belonging alternately to the French and Spaniards. The French first formed a small establishment in Florida in 1564, from which they were driven in the following year by the Spaniards, who then began to form settlements themselves. At the peace of 1763 Florida was ceded to England, in exchange for the Havanna, which had been taken from the Spaniards. While it was in possession of the English, it was divided into East and West Florida, separated by the Apalachicola. During the American war, in the year 1781, both the Floridas were reduced by the Spaniards, to whom they were confirmed by the peace of 1783.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1400	} between	{ 60° and 82 West longitude. the equator, and 12 North latitude.	} 700,000
Breadth 700			

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by the North Sea (part of the Atlantic Ocean) on the north ; by the same sea and Surinam on the east ; by the country of the Amazons and Peru on the south ; and by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
The northern division contains the provin- ces of	1. Terra Firma Pro- per, or Darien	Porto Bello PANAMA, W. long. 80° 21', N. lat. 8° 47'
	2. Carthagena	Carthagena
	3. St. Martha	St. Martha
	4. Rio de la Hacha	Rio de la Hacha
	5. Venezuela	Venezuela
	6. Comana	Comana
	7. New Andalusia, or Paria	St. Thomas
The southern division contains the provin- ces of	1. New Granada	Santa Fé de Bagota
	2. Popayan	Popayan

ISTHMUS OF DARIEN....The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello, in the North, to Panama in the South Sea, or rather a little west of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America ; and here the isthmus or neck of land is only sixty miles over.

BAYS....The principal bays in Terra Firma are, the Bay of Panama and the Bay of St. Michael, in the South Sea ; the Bay of Porto Bello, the Gulf of Darien, Sino Bay, Carthagena Bay and harbour, the Gulf of Venezuela.

RIVERS....The chief rivers are the Rio Grande, the Darien, the Chagre, and the Oronoque, or Oronoko, which latter is remarkable

for its singularly winding course; the length of which, with all its windings, is estimated at 1500 miles. It is also remarkable for rising and falling once a year only; rising gradually during the space of five months, continuing stationary one month, and then falling for five months, and again continuing stationary one month. This is probably occasioned by the rains which fall on the mountains called the Andes, where it has its source.

METALS, MINERALS....There were formerly rich mines of gold here, which are now in a great measure exhausted. The silver, iron, and copper mines, have been since opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones.

CLIMATE....The climate here, particularly in the northern divisions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmest day in Paris is continual in Cartagena: the excessive heats raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholesome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE....The soil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impossible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coasts are generally barren sand, and incapable of bearing any species of grain. The trees most remarkable for their dimensions are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balsam tree. The manchineel tree is particularly remarkable: it bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains a most subtle poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. The habella de Cartagena is the fruit of a species of willow, and contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never-failing remedy for the bite of the most venomous vipers and serpents, which are very frequent all over this country.

ANIMALS....In treating of North America, we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the southern parts. Among those peculiar to this country, the most remarkable is the Sloth, or, as it is called by way of derision, the Swift Peter. It bears a resemblance to an ordinary monkey in shape and size, but is of a most wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its skin all over corrugated. He stands in no need of either chain or hutch, never stirring unless compelled by hunger: and he is said to be several minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with such a plaintive, and at the same time so disagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and disgust. In this cry consists the whole defence of this wretched animal; for on the first hostile approach, it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with disgustful howlings, so that his pursuer flies much more speedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noise. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he ascends with the utmost uneasiness, moving, and crying, and stopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks

off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to save himself such another troublesome journey ; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himself into a ball, and with a shriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in these countries are very numerous ; they keep together twenty or thirty in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree ; and if they meet with a single person, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them ; at least they chatter and make a frightful noise, throwing things at him ; they hang themselves by the tail, on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes : but where two or three people are together, they usually scamper away.

INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, CHIEF TOWNS.... We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from those of Mexico. To what we have observed with regard to this country, it is only necessary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are variously intermixed with the negroes and Indians. These intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully distinguished from each other, because every person expects to be regarded in proportion as a greater share of the Spanish blood runs in his veins. The first distinction, arising from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to these are the *Tercerones*, produced from a white and a mulatto. From the intermarriage with these and the whites, arise the *Quarterones*, who, though still near the former, are disgraced with a tint of the negro blood. But the produce of these and the whites are the *Quinterones*, who, it is said, are not to be distinguished from the real Spaniards, but by being of a still fairer complexion. The same gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes : besides these, there are a thousand others, hardly distinguishable by the natives themselves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello, which are three of the most considerable cities in Spanish America ; and each containing several thousand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandise of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coast, particularly in the Bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. An immense number of negro slaves are employed in fishing for these, who have arrived at wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are sometimes, however, devoured by fish, particularly the sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are crushed against the shelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico.

PERU.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1800	} between	{ The equator and 25 South lat. 60 and 81 West long.	970,000
Breadth 500			

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by Terra Firma on the north ; by Amazonia and Paraguay on the east ; by Chili on the south ; and by the Pacific Ocean on the west.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The northern division	{ Quito	{ Quito.
		{ Payta.
The middle division	{ Lima, or Los Reyes	{ Lima, 76° 49' West long. 12° 11' S. lat.
		{ Cusco and Callao.
The southern division	{ Los Charcos	{ Potosi.
		{ Porco.

MOUNTAINS....Peru is separated from Amazonia and Paraguay by a chain of mountains the most extensive, and of which some of the summits are the highest in the world. These are the Cordellira de los Andes, or chain of the Andes, of which an account has already been given in the general description of America.

RIVERS....The rivers Granada, or Cagdalená, Oronoque, Amazon, or Plate, rise in the Andes. Many other rivers rise also in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific Ocean.

METALS, MINERALS....There are many gold mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces ; but the old mines are constantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns shift with the mines. That of Potosi, when the silver there was found at the easiest expence (for now having gone so deep it is not so easily brought up) contained 90,000 souls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were six to one. Peru is likewise the only part of Spanish America which produces quicksilver, an article of immense value, considering the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. The principal mine of this singular metal is at a place called Guancavelica, discovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitish mass, resembling brick ill burned. The substance is volatilised by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, in which it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid. In Peru likewise is

found the new substance called platina, which may be considered as an eighth metal, and, from its superior qualities, may almost vie with gold itself.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.... Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet having on one side the South Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not so hot as other tropical countries. The sky too, which is generally cloudy, defends it from the direct rays of the sun; yet it seldom rains in Lower Peru; but this defect is sufficiently supplied by a soft kindly dew which falls gradually every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, as to produce in many places the greatest fertility. In Quito, however, they have prodigious rains, attended with violent storms of thunder and lightning. Along the sea coast of Peru is generally a dry barren sand, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country. This country produces fruits peculiar to the climate, and most of those of Europe. The culture of maize, of pimento, and cotton, which was found established there, has not been neglected, and that of wheat, barley, cassava, potatoes, sugar, as also of the olive and vine, is attended to. A principal article in the produce and commerce of this country is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jesuits' bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug grows principally in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The best bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it is about the size of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit resembling the almond: but it is only the bark which has those excellent qualities that render it so useful in intermitting fevers, and other disorders to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greatest abundance in the vale of Africa, a district in the southern parts of Peru, from whence it is annually exported to the value of 600,000 crowns.

ANIMALS.... The principal animals peculiar to Peru are the lama, the vicunna, and the guanaco. The lama has a small head, resembling that of a horse and a sheep at the same time. It is about the size of a stag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice, which inflames the part it falls on. The flesh of the lama is agreeable and salutary, and the animal is not only useful in affording a fine kind of wool and food, but also as a beast of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the steepest mountains with a burden of sixty or seventy pounds. It feeds very sparingly, and never drinks. The vicunna is smaller and swifter than the lama, and produces wool still finer in quality. In the vicunna is found the bezoar stone, regarded as a specific against poison. The guanaco is much larger than the lama, its wool is long and harsh; but in shape they are nearly alike.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.... Among these may be classed the volcanoes of the Andes, which, from the midst of immense heaps of snow, pour forth torrents of fiery matter and clouds of smoke. Here are streams which, in their course, cover whatever they pass over with a stony incrustation; and fountains of liquid matter, called coppe, resembling pitch and tar, and used by seamen for the same purpose.

POPULATION, CHARACTER OF INHABITANTS.... The population of Peru has never been ascertained with any degree of precision. The number of inhabitants in the principal cities has been estimated at

about 200,000. The manners of the people in this country do not remarkably differ from those of the whole Spanish dominions. Pride and laziness are the two predominant passions. It is said, by the most authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The Creoles, and all the other descendants of the Spaniards, according to the above distinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true born Castilian could not think of but with detestation. This, no doubt, in part arises from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spanish pride has made the greatest descents; and many of the first nobility are employed in commerce.

CITIES, MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.... We join these articles because of their intimate connection; for except in the cities, we shall describe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru: its situation, in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the most proper for a city, which he expected would preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are many very magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of slight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary; and, besides, it is found that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 54,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a sixth part. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Paluda, made his entry into Lima, in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, to the amount of seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, silver, and precious stones, which load and ornament even the walls. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru stand in need of; the fleets from Europe and the East Indies land at the same harbour, and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate sale for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens, and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more terrible or complete; not more than one of three thousand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the most singular and extraordi-

nary imaginable. This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived, in one minute, the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its bosom, and immediately all was silent; but the same wave which destroyed the town drove a little boat by the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself, and was saved. Cusco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a distance from the sea, it has been long on the decline: but it is still a very considerable place, and contains above 26,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very industrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have also, both here and in Quito, a particular taste for painting; and their productions in this way, some of which have been admired in Italy, are dispersed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populousness, if not superior to it. It is, like Cusco, an inland city, and, having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which supply the consumption throughout Peru.

GOVERNMENT....Peru is under the government of a viceroy, who resides at Lima, and whose authority formerly extended over all the three districts; but that of Quito has since been detached from it. The viceroy is as absolute as the king of Spain; but as his territories are so extensive, it is necessary that he should part with a share of his authority to the several audiences or courts established over the kingdom. There is a treasury court established at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

HISTORY....For the history of Peru, see the account of the discovery and conquest of America.

CHILI.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length	1260	} between {	25° and 44' South latitude.	206,000
Breadth	580		65° and 85' West longitude.	

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by Peru on the north; by La Plata on the east; by Patagonia on the south; and by the Pacific Ocean on the west.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
On the west side of the Andes,	{ Chili Proper,	{ St. Jago, West long. 77°. South lat. 34°.
		{ Baldivia.
On the east side of the Andes,	{ Cuyo, or Cutio,	{ Imperial.
		{ St. John de Frontiers.

RIVERS, LAKES....The chief rivers are the Salado or Salt River, the Guasco, Coquimbo, Chiapa, Bohio, and the Baldivia, all scarcely navigable but at their mouths.

The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Besides which, they have several salt water lakes, that have a communication with the sea, part of the year. In stormy weather, the sea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fish; but in the hot season the water evaporates leaving a crust of fine white salt a foot thick.

METALS, MINERALS..Mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, quick-silver, iron, and lead, abound in this country. Vast quantities of gold are washed down from the mountains by brooks and torrents, the annual amount of which, when manufactured, is estimated at not less than eight millions of dollars.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE....The climate of Chili is one of the most delightful in the world, being a medium between the intense heat of the torrid and the piercing cold of the frigid zones. The soil is extremely fertile. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with respect to the gifts of nature: for here, not only the tropical fruits, but all species of grain, of which a considerable part is exported, come to great perfection.

ANIMALS....The wild animals of this country are nearly the same as in Peru. The horses of Chili are in great esteem; and prodigious numbers of oxen, goats, and sheep, are fattened in the luxuriant pastures of Chili, the breeding of which is almost the only species of husbandry attended to in this country. Turkeys, geese, and all kinds of poultry, are found here in the same profusion. The coasts abound with various kinds of excellent fish: there are also many whales and seals.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS....This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are still in a great measure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preservation from the Spanish yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition with regard to population. According to some accounts the Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, not to above thrice that number. The Abbé Raynal, however, says there are 40,000 Spanish inhabitants in the city of St. Jago, in which case the aggregate number in all the provinces of Chili must be much more considerable than has generally been supposed. Other accounts estimate the population of this country at 80,000 whites, and 240,000 negroes.

CHIEF TOWNS....St. Jago, the capital, is a large and handsome town, situate on the river Mapocho, which runs through it from east to west, in the midst of an extensive and beautiful plain. Baldivia or Valdivia is another large town, situated between the rivers Calacalles and Portero, where they fall into the South Sea. There are several strong forts and batteries to defend the entrance of the harbour, as it is considered as the key of the South Sea.

TRADE....Chili supplies Peru with hides, dried fruits, salted meat, horses, hemp and corn; and receives in exchange tobacco, sugar, cocoa, the manufactures of Quito, and articles of luxury brought from Europe. Paraguay, receives from Chili wine, brandy, oil, and chiefly gold: and returns in payment, mules, wax, cotton, negroes, &c. The commerce between the two countries is not carried on by sea, it having been found more expeditious, safer, and even less expensive to go by land, though it is 354 leagues from St. Jago to Buenos Ayres, and more than 40 leagues of the way are amid the snows and precipices of the Andes.

GOVERNMENT....The seat of government is at St. Jago: the commandant there is, however, subordinate to the viceroy of Peru in all matters relating to the government, to the finances and to war; but he is independent of him in the administration of justice, and as president of the royal audience.

HISTORY....This country was first discovered by Diego Almagro, in 1525. He passed the Andes from Peru; and, though he had lost a great part of the soldiers who attended him in his expedition, he was received with great submission by the inhabitants of the country, who had formerly been under the dominion of the Peruvians. The Spaniards again entered Chili in 1541, under their general Baldivia, the founder of the city which bears his name. They at first met with no opposition, the people of the country being gathering in their harvest; but when that was finished they took up arms, and never laid them down for ten years. The natives have at all times bravely defended themselves against the Spanish yoke: they are still in a great degree unsubdued, and are engaged in frequent struggles for their independence.

PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1500 } Breadth 1000 }	between	{ 12 and 37 South latitude. 50 and 75 West longitude. }	1,000,000

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by Amazonia on the north ; by Brazil on the east ; by Patagonia on the south ; and by Peru and Chili on the west.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
East division contains	{ Paraguay . . .	Assumption
	{ Parana . . .	St. Anne
	{ Guaira . . .	Ciudad Real
	{ Uragua . . .	Los Reyes
South division . .	{ Tucuman . . .	St. Jago
	{ Rio de la Plata	BUENOS AYRES, west long. 57° 54', south lat. 34° 35'.

RIVERS, LAKES....This country, besides an infinite number of small rivers, is watered by three principal ones, the Paragua, Uragua, and Parana, which, united near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks ; and, on their recess, leave them enriched with a slime that produces the greatest plenty of whatever is committed to it.

The Rio de la Plata has a course of about 1900 miles in length, but it is principally remarkable for its breadth at its mouth. It falls into the South Atlantic Ocean, between the capes St. Anthony and St. Mary, which are 150 miles distant from each other, and at Monte Video, a fort above 100 miles from the sea, the land of either shore cannot be seen from a vessel in the middle of the channel. This country abounds with lakes, one of which, Casacores, is 100 miles long.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE....This vast tract is far from being wholly subdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people in Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the abovementioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, not interrupted by the least hill for several hundred miles every way. The climate is in some parts extremely hot, in others temperate and pleasant. The soil is very fertile, producing cotton in great quantities ; tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that the hides of the beasts are

all that is properly bought, the carcasses being given into the bargain. A horse some years ago might be bought for a dollar; and the usual price for a bullock, chosen out of the herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is destitute of woods. The air is remarkably sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY, AND COMMERCE.... The Spaniards first discovered this country, by sailing up the river La Plata, in 1515, and in 1535 founded the town of Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the air, on the south side of the river, 50 leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is seven leagues broad. This is one of the most considerable towns in South America, containing above 30,000 inhabitants, and the only place of traffic to the southward of Brazil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru; but no regular fleet comes here; two, or at most three, register ships make the whole of their regular intercourse with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, consisting chiefly of the gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar, and hides. Those who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose, in such parts of Brazil as lie near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are so much the same with those of the rest of the Spanish colonies in South America, that nothing farther can be said on those articles.

But we cannot quit this country without saying something of that extraordinary species of commonwealth which the Jesuits erected in the interior parts, and of which these crafty priests endeavoured to keep all strangers in the dark.

About the middle of the last century, those fathers represented to the court of Spain, that the want of success in their missions was owing to the scandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their insolent behaviour caused in the Indians wherever they came. They insinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the Gospel might, by their labours, have been extended into the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be subdued to his catholic majesty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonstrance met with success; the sphere of their labours was marked out, uncontrouled liberty was given to the Jesuits within these limits, and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter this pale, without licence from the fathers. They on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to send a certain number to the king's works whenever they should be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms the Jesuits gladly entered upon the scene of action, and opened their spiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about fifty wandering families, whom they persuaded to settle: and they united them into a little township. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure that amazed the world, and added so much power, at the same time that it occasioned so much envy and jealousy of their society. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains, and such masterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds

of the most savage nations, fixed the most rambling, and subdued those to their government who had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese. They prevailed upon thousands of various dispersed tribes to embrace their religion; and these soon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace, with precision, all the steps which were taken in the accomplishment of so extraordinary a conquest over the bodies and minds of so many people. The Jesuits left nothing undone that could confirm their subjection or increase their numbers; and it is said, that above 340,000 families were subject to them; living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint; that the Indians were instructed in the military art with the most exact discipline, and could raise 60,000 men well armed; that they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exercised manufactures; some even aspired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of these missions, except their contentment under it. Some writers have treated the character of these Jesuits with great severity, accusing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to such an excess, as to cause not only persons of both sexes, but even the magistrates, who were always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes, and to suffer persons of the highest distinction within their jurisdiction, to kiss the hem of their garments, as the greatest honour. The priests themselves possessed large property; all manufactures were theirs; the natural produce of the country was brought to them; and the treasures, annually remitted to the superior of the order, seemed to evince that zeal for religion was not the only motive of their forming these missions. The fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Mestizos, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of the territory was ceded by Spain to the court of Portugal, in exchange for Santo Sacramento, to make the Oragua the boundary of their possessions, the Jesuits refused to comply with this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent, and the Indians actually took up arms; but, notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops who were sent to quell them. In 1767, the Jesuits were sent out of America by royal authority, and their late subjects were put upon the same footing with the rest of the inhabitants of the country.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA....The island of Cuba is situate between 20 and 25 degrees north latitude, and between 74 and 85 degrees west longitude, 100 miles to the south of Cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the island from east to west; but the land near the sea is in general level and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America. It produces all commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, mastic, and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar; but from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of any consequence; but there are several good harbours in the island which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situate and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich; and that of the Havanna, facing Florida, which is the capital of Cuba, and a place of great strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, with a great number of convents and churches; it was taken, however, by the courage and perseverance of the English troops in the year 1762, but restored in the subsequent treaty of peace. Besides these, there is likewise Cumberland harbour, and that of Santo Cruz, a considerable town thirty miles east of the Havanna.

PORTO RICO....Situate between 64 and 67 degrees west longitude, and in 18 degrees north latitude, lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, is 100 miles long and 40 broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers, but the island is unhealthy in the rainy seasons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards settled here: but there is no longer any considerable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, stands in a little island on the north side, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief island by a causeway, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than most of the Spanish towns, because it is the centre of contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the king of Spain's subjects.

MARGARETTA....Situate in 64 degrees west longitude, and 11 degrees and 30 minutes, north latitude, separated from the northern coast of New Andalusia, in Terra Firma, by a strait of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always ver-

dant, affords a most agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a scarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fishery on the coast, which is now discontinued.

There are many other small islands in these seas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention; we shall therefore proceed towards and round Cape Horn into the South Sea, in our way to which we arrive at the

FALKLAND or MALOUIN ISLANDS....These islands, situate between 51 and 53 degrees of south latitude, and 57 and 62 degrees of west longitude, were first discovered by sir Richard Hawkins, in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins' Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The present English name, Falkland, was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1639, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps. The French call them the Malouin Isles from the people of St. Maloes, whom they consider as their discoverers. They have occasioned some contest between Spain and Great Britain; but being of very little worth, seem to have been silently abandoned by the latter in 1774, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the Spanish court.

The island of **TERRA DEL FUEGO**, at the southern extremity of America, situate between 52 degrees 30 minutes, and 55 degrees 35 minutes south latitude, and 66 and 75 degrees west longitude, derives its name from the volcanoes observed on it. It is a large island containing about 42,000 square miles; the aspect of the country is dreary and uncomfortable, and the climate is cold as that of Lapland, though the latitude is only that of the north of England. The natives are of a middle stature, with broad flat faces, high cheek bones, and flat noses: they are dressed in the skins of seals, and their only food seems to be shell fish. The isle called Staten-land is divided from Terra del Fuego by the strait of Le Maire. Cape Horn is a promontory on another small island to the south of Terra del Fuego.

Terra del Fuego is separated from the main land of South America by the Straits of Magellan. These straits were first discovered by Magellan, or Magelhaens, a Portuguese in the service of Spain, who sailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been since considered as the first navigator that sailed round the world: but having lost his life in a skirmish with some Indians before the ships returned to Europe, the honour of being the first circumnavigator has been disputed in favour of the brave sir Francis Drake, who, in 1574, passed the same strait in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, Le Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the southward of these straits, discovered, in latitude fifty-four and a half, another passage, since known by the name of the straits of Le Maire; and this passage, which has been generally preferred by succeeding navigators, is called doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anson's Voyage, however, from fatal experience, advises mariners to keep clear of these straits and islands, by running down to sixty-one or sixty-two degrees south latitude, before they attempt to set their face westward, towards the South Seas; but the extreme long nights, and the intense cold in those latitudes, render that passage practicable only in the months of January and February, which is there the middle of summer.

Beyond Cape Horn and the straits of Magellan, proceeding northwards in the Great South Sea, or Pacific Ocean, the first Spanish island of any importance is CHILOE, on the coast of Chili, which has a governor, and some harbours well fortified. It is situate between 42 and 44 degrees of south latitude, and 75 and 76 west longitude, and is about 150 miles long, and 21 broad.

JUAN FERNANDES....Lying in 83 degrees west longitude, and 33 south latitude, 300 miles west of Chili. This island is uninhabited; but having some good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the English cruisers to touch at and water. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems that one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, was left ashore in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived some years, until he was discovered by captain Woodes Rogers in 1709. When taken up, he had forgotten his native language, and could scarcely be understood, seeming to speak his words by halves. He was dressed in goats' skins, would drink nothing but water, and it was some time before he could relish the ship's victuals. During his abode in this island he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down, and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of these were caught thirty years after by lord Anson's people; their venerable aspect, and majestic beards, discovered strong symptoms of antiquity. Selkirk, upon his return to England, was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is said to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication; but that writer, by the help of these papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; so that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigested for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them but those hints which gave rise to his own celebrated performance.

The other islands that are worth mentioning are the Gallipago Isles, situated four hundred miles west of Peru, under the equator; and those in the bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Islands.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

BRASIL

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 2500	} between	{ the equator and 35 South latitude.
Breadth 700		{ 35 and 60 West longitude.

BOUNDARIES....Bounded by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the north; by the same Ocean on the east; by the mouth of the River Plata on the south; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of the Amazons, on the west.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Northern division contains the captainships of	Para	Para, or Belim
	Marignan	St. Lewis
	Siara	Siara
	Petagues	St. Luc
	Rio Grande	Tignares
	Payraba	Payraba
	Tamara	Tamara
Middle division contains the captainships of	Pernambuco	Olinda
	Serigippe	Serigippe
	Bahia, or the Bay of All Saints	St. Salvador
	Ilheos	Paya
	Porto Seguro	Porto Seguro
Southern division contains the captainships of	Spirito Santo	Spirito Santo
	Rio Janeiro	St. Sebastian
	St. Vincent	St. Vincent
	Del Rey	St. Salvador

On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions in their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catharine's.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND CAPES....The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brasil on the north-east and east, upwards of 3000 miles, forming several fine bays and harbours; as the harbours of Pernambuco, All Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro,

the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north shore of La Plata.

METALS, MINERALS....Gold and diamond mines are found in Brasil. The former were discovered in the year 1681, and have since yielded about five millions sterling annually, of which sum a fifth belongs to the crown. The diamond mines are situate near the little river Milho Verde, not far from Villa Nova do Principe. They are farmed at about 30,000*l* yearly, which is thought to be scarcely a fifth of what they actually produce. The diamonds, however, are not of so fine water as those of Hindostan, but are of a brownish obscure hue.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, AND RIVERS....The name of Brasil was given to this country, because it was observed to abound with a wood of that name. To the northward of Brasil, which lies almost under the equator, the climate is hot, boisterous, and unwholesome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have such deluges of rain, with storms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the southward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world that enjoys a more serene and wholesome air, refreshed with the soft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coast is in general rather low than high, but exceedingly pleasant, it being interspersed with meadows and woods; but on the west, far within land, are mountains from whence issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata; others running across the country from west to east till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the sugar mills belonging to the Portuguese.

SOIL AND PRODUCE....In general the soil is extremely fruitful, producing sugar, which being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muscovado, as we call our unrefined sugar; also tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balsam of Copaiba, Brasil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dyeing, but not the red of the best kind; it has likewise some place in medicine, as a stomachic and restraining.

The produce of the soil was found very sufficient for subsisting the inhabitants until the mines of gold and diamonds were discovered: these, with the sugar plantations, occupy so many hands, that agriculture is neglected, and, in consequence, Brasil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

The animals here are the same as in Peru and Mexico.

POPULATION....According to sir George Staunton, the whole number of whites in the Brasils is about 200,000, and that of the negroes 600,000. The natives may perhaps be about a million or a million and a half.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS....The portrait given us of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in America, by the most judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are described as a people, who, while sunk in the most effeminate luxury, practise the most desperate crimes; of a temper hypocritical and dissembling; of little sincerity in conversation, or honesty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel; in their diet penurious; for, like

the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are much more fond of show, state and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society, and of a good table; yet their feasts, which are seldom made, are sumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cause themselves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called serpentines, which are borne on the negroes' shoulders, by the help of a bamboo about twelve or fourteen feet long. Most of these hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour: they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of tester, with curtains: so that the person carried cannot be seen, unless he pleases; but may either lie down, or sit up leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be seen, he pulls the curtain aside, and salutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the streets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and even hold long conferences in them in the streets; but then the two slaves who carry them make use of a strong well made staff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron; this they stick fast in the ground, and rest the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, on two of these, till their master's business or compliment is over. Scarcely any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

CHIEF TOWNS.... The capital of Brasil is St. Salvador, frequently called Bahia, where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour. It is built upon a high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake, forming a crescent, investing it almost wholly, so as nearly to join the sea, on the other. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and it has very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond comparison, the most gay and opulent city in all Brasil.

St. Sebastian, more usually called Rio de Janeiro, from the name of the province, is situate on a spacious and commodious bay: it is a rich and populous city, containing, it is said, 200,000 inhabitants. On the south side of a spacious square is the palace of the viceroy, and there are several other squares, in which are fountains supplied with water by an aqueduct of considerable length, brought over valleys by a double row of arches. In an island in the harbour, called Serpent Island, are a dock-yard, magazines, and naval store-houses.

TRADE.... The trade of Brasil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America; they being the only European nation that has established colonies in Africa, whence they import between forty and fifty thousand negroes annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Brasil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is supposed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000*l*. This, with the sugar, the tobacco, the hides, and the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities that European ships carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal; they consist of woollen goods of all kinds from England, France, and Holland; the

linen and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the silks of France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals, from England; as well as salt fish, beef, flour, and cheese; oil they have from Spain; wine, with some fruit, is nearly all they are supplied with from Portugal. England is at present most interested in the trade of Portugal, both for home consumption and what they want for the use of the Brasils.

Brasil is a very wealthy and flourishing settlement. The export of sugar within forty years is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almost the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. The tobacco is remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as in the United States. The northern and southern parts of Brasil abound with horned cattle; these are hunted for their hides only, of which no less than twenty thousand are sent annually to Europe.

GOVERNMENT....Brasil is now divided into nine governments, each of which has its particular chief. Of these the governor of Rio Janeiro alone has the style of viceroy. They are appointed for three years, which term is prolonged at pleasure. Each district has a particular judge, from whose decision there lies an appeal to the superior tribunals of Rio Janeiro or Lisbon.

REVENUE....The revenue arising to the crown of Portugal from this colony, amounts, according to some writers, to two millions sterling in gold, besides the duties and customs on merchandise imported from the country. This, indeed, is more than a fifth of the precious metal produced by the mines; but, every consequent advantage considered, it probably does not much exceed the truth.

RELIGION....The religion of Portugal, or the Roman-catholic, is established here. Six bishoprics have been successively founded under the archbishopric of Bahia, or St. Salvador, which see was established in 1552.

HISTORY....This country was first discovered by Amerigo Vesputio, in 1498; but the Portuguese did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themselves at the Bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with some interruption at first from the court of Spain, who considered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata; which they still enjoy. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of prosperity, they were struck by one of those blows which generally decide the fate of kingdoms. Don Sebastian, the king of Portugal, lost his life in an expedition against the Moors in Africa; and by that event the Portuguese lost their independence, being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

The Dutch, soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, and being not satisfied with supporting their independence by a successful defensive war, but flushed with the juvenile ardour of a growing commonwealth, pursued the Spaniards into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the spoils of their former masters. They particularly attacked

the possessions of the Portuguese ; they took almost all their fortresses in the East Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brasil, where they took seven of the captainships, or provinces ; and would have subdued the whole colony, had not their career been stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered forces. The Dutch were, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brasil ; but their West India company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquish their interest in that country ; which was accepted : and the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of all Brasil from that time, till about the end of the year 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress called St. Sacrament : but, by the treaty of peace of the following year, it was restored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

THE possessions of the French on the continent of America are at present inconsiderable. They were masters of Canada and Louisiana; but they have now lost all footing in North America; though in the southern continent they have still a settlement, which is called

CAYENNE, OR EQUINOXIAL FRANCE.

IT is situate between the equator and 5th degree of north latitude, and between the 50th and 55th of west longitude. It extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and nearly 300 miles within land; it is bounded by Surinam, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, east; by Amazonia, south; and by Guiana, west. The chief town is Caen. All the coast is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for settlements: the French have, however, not yet extended them so far as they might; but they raise the same commodities which they have from the West India islands, and in no inconsiderable quantity. They have also taken possession of the island of Cayenne, on this coast, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about 45 miles in circumference. The island is very unhealthy; but, having some good harbours, the French have here some settlements, which raise sugar and coffee.

FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were among the last nations who made settlements in the West Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

ST. DOMINGO, or HISPANIOLA.... This island was at first possessed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the most considerable part was long in the hands of the French, to whom the Spanish part was likewise ceded by the treaty of peace between the two nations in 1795.

It is situate between the 17th and 21st degrees north latitude, and the 67th and 74th of west longitude, lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto Rico, and is 450 miles long and 150 broad. When Hispaniola was first discovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at least a million. But such was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to so infamous a height did they carry their oppression of the poor natives, that they were reduced to sixty thou-

sand in the space of fifteen years. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers; and the soil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and cassava root. The European cattle are so multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the most barren parts of the rocks they discovered formerly silver and gold: the mines, however, are not worked now. The north-west parts, which were in the possession of the French, consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vast abundance: this indeed is the best and most fruitful part of the best and most fertile island in the West Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The population of this island was estimated, in 1788, at 27,717 white people; 21,808 free people of colour; and 405,528 slaves. Its trade employed 580 large ships, carrying 189,679 tons, in which the imports amounted to twelve millions of dollars, of which more than eight millions were in manufactured goods of France, and the other four millions in French produce. The Spanish ships exported, in French goods or money, 1,400,000 dollars, for mules, imported by them into the colony; ninety-eight French ships, carrying 40,130 tons, imported 26,506 negroes, who sold for eight millions of dollars.

The most ancient town in this island, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole island is named, especially by the French. It is situate on a spacious harbour, and is a large well built city, inhabited, like the other Spanish towns, by a mixture of Europeans, Creoles, Mulattoes, Mestizos, and Negroes.

The French towns are, Cape François, the capital, which is neither walled nor paled in, and is said to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. Before its destruction in 1793, it contained about eight thousand inhabitants, whites, people of colour, and slaves. It was the governor's residence in time of war, as Port-au-Prince was in time of peace. The Mole, though inferior to these in other respects, is the first port in the island for safety in time of war, being by nature and art strongly fortified. The other towns and ports of any note are, Fort Dauphin, St. Mark, Leogane, Petit Goave, Jeremie, Les Cayes, St. Louis, and Jacmel.

Since the French revolution, in consequence of some injudicious decrees of the National Assembly of France, this island has been a scene of confusion and bloodshed. In the night between the 22d and 23d of August, 1791, a most alarming insurrection of the negroes began on the French plantations upon this island, and a scene of the most horrid cruelties ensued. In a little time no less than one hundred thousand negroes were in rebellion; and all the manufactories and plantations of more than half the northern province appeared as one general conflagration. The plains and the mountains were filled with carnage and deluged with blood. The negroes who were slaves were emancipated from their chains, and trained to arms; which they never afterwards laid down. An African by birth, who had received the French name of Toussaint l'Ouverture, was afterwards invested with the chief command of the negroes and mulattoes. He appears to have been a man of some ability, and to have exercised his authority in many instances with prudence and moderation. When, however, the peace of Amiens had set at liberty the French fleets, Bona-

parte sent out an expedition to reduce Toussaint to dependence upon France, and restore order in the colony. After several encounters, in which the negro chief, unable to resist the regular forces of France, was almost constantly defeated, Toussaint was induced to submit, and accept of apparently favourable terms. But the French, soon after, most perfidiously seized on him, under a charge, probably without foundation, of treacherous practices, and sent him in irons to France, where he perished in a dungeon. The other black chiefs who had submitted with him, Christophe and Dessalines, saved themselves by flight; the negroes and mulattoes again flew to arms, and the French troops rapidly fell victims to the climate. Dessalines afterwards succeeded to the authority of Toussaint, and, following the example set him in Europe, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor of Hayti,* by the title of Jacques I. He carried on a war of extermination, which was but too successful, against the French, who were compelled entirely to abandon the island. The last post they held was at St. Domingo, from which they were expelled by the Spaniards in 1809. Hayti has been for some years engaged in a civil war, which commenced immediately after the death of Dessalines. One party chose Christophe as the successor of that chief, and elected him king. Another party declared in favour of a republican form of government, and chose Petion, a mulattoe, for their chief magistrate. The war has been conducted with various success. Christophe is at present in possession of the northern and Petion of the southern part of what was formerly French St. Domingo.

MARTINICO, which is situate between 14 and 15 degrees of north latitude, and in 61 degrees west longitude, lying about 40 leagues north-west of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out, on every side, a number of agreeable and useful rivers, which adorn and enrich this island in a high degree. The produce of the soil is sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and such fruits as are found in the neighbouring islands. But sugar is here, as in all the West India islands, the principal commodity, of which a considerable quantity is exported annually. Martinico was the residence of the governor of the French islands in these seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious, and so well fortified, that they used to bid defiance to the English, who, in vain, often attempted this place. However, in the war of 1756, when the British arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this island was added to the British empire; but it was given back at the treaty of peace. It was again taken by the English in 1794, but restored by the treaty of Amiens. Retaken in 1809, by the same enemy; and again restored in 1815.

GUADALOUPE, so called by Columbus from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain, is situate in 16 degrees north latitude, and in 62 west longitude, about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and about as much south of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad. It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships can venture; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry-boat. Its soil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This island is in a flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar almost in-

* The ancient native name of the island.

credible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the English, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759, it was reduced by the British arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763. It was again reduced by the English in 1794, but evacuated a few months after. They re-possessed themselves of it in 1810, and restored it with the other French colonies in 1813.

ST. LUCIA, situate in 14 degrees north latitude, and in 61 degrees west longitude, eighty miles north-west of Barbadoes, is twenty-three miles in length, and twelve in breadth. It received its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The English first settled on this island in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that this island, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to settle these islands; which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleasant rivers and well situated harbours: and is now declared a free port under certain restrictions. The English made themselves masters of it in 1778; but it was restored again to the French in 1783. It was taken by the English in 1794, surrendered again to the French in 1795, and re-captured by Great Britain in 1796; it was restored by the treaty of Amiens, but retaken soon after the recommencement of hostilities in 1803. By the treaty of Paris in 1813, St. Lucia is retained by the British.

TOBAGO....This island is situate in 11 degrees north latitude, 120 miles south of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish main. It is about 32 miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not so hot as might be expected so near the equator; and it is said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other West India islands. It has a fruitful soil, capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and creeks are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kinds of shipping. The value and importance of this island appear from the expensive and formidable armaments sent thither by European powers in support of their different claims. It seems to have been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who defended their pretensions against both England and France with the most obstinate perseverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain. In June 1781, it was taken by the French; and was ceded to them by the treaty of 1782. In 1793, it was again captured by the British arms, but restored by the late peace.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, and MARIGALANTE, are three small islands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Christopher's, and of no great consequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give shelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our West India trade. The former was given to Sweden in 1785.

The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated near Newfoundland, have been already mentioned in our account of that island.

DUTCH AMERICA.

CONTAINING SURINAM, ON THE CONTINENT OF SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portuguese had dispossessed the Dutch of Brasil in the manner we have seen, and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged to console themselves with their rich possessions in the East Indies, and to sit down content in the West with Surinam; a country once in the possession of England, but of no great value, and which was ceded to them in exchange for New York; with two or three small and barren islands in the north sea, not far from the Spanish main.

Dutch Guiana is situate between five and seven degrees north latitude, extending 100 miles along the coast from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, south. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholesome; and a considerable part of the coast is low, and covered with water. The chief settlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the same name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations thirty leagues above the mouth of this river. This was one of the richest and most valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a less prosperous situation than it was some years since, owing, among other causes, to the wars with the fugitive negroes, whom the Dutch treated with great barbarity, and who are become so numerous, having increased from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in the woods, which are almost inaccessible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramaca, and Copename, and are become very formidable enemies to their former masters. Under the commands of chiefs, whom they have elected among themselves, they have cultivated lands for their subsistence, and make frequent incursions into the neighbouring plantations. The chief trade of Surinam consists in sugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, skins, and some valuable dyeing drugs. They trade with the North American colonies, who bring hither horses, live cattle, and provisions, and take home a large quantity of molasses. Surinam was taken by the English in August 1799, but restored by the treaty of Amiens. In May 1804, it was retaken, and again restored in 1813.

Connected with Surinam, we shall mention the two Dutch colonies of Demerary and Issequibo on the Spanish main, which surrendered to the English in the year 1781, and were represented as a very valuable acquisition, which would produce more revenue to the crown than all the British West India islands united. But the report was either not believed or slighted; for the colonies were left defenceless, and soon were retaken by a French frigate. In the present war, however, they again surrendered to the British arms, April 21, 1796. They were restored by the treaty of Amiens, but after the renewal of the war they were retaken. They are now once more in possession of the Dutch.

Dr. Bancroft observes, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddish brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiscuous intercourse of these different people has

likewise generated several intermediate casts, whose colours immutably depend on their degree of consanguinity to either whites, Indians, or negroes. These are divided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones, and Quinterones, with several intermediate subdivisions, proceeding from their retrograde intercourse. There are so great a number of birds, of various species, and remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, in Guiana, that several persons in this colony have employed themselves advantageously, with their slaves and dependents, in killing and preserving birds for the cabinets of naturalists in different parts of Europe. The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, silver, copper, or by a stick of some particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a shock perfectly resembling that of electricity. There are an immense number and variety of snakes in this country, which form one of its principal inconveniences. A snake was killed some years since, on a plantation which had belonged to Peter Amyatt, esq. which was upwards of thirty-three feet in length, and in the largest place near the middle three feet in circumference. It had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Dutch Guiana is the Laubba, which is peculiar to this country. It is a small amphibious creature, about the size of a pig four months old, covered with fine short hair: and its flesh, by the Europeans who reside here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIUS, or EUSTATIA.... Situate in $17^{\circ} 29'$ north latitude, and $63^{\circ} 10'$ west longitude, and three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, is only a mountain, about 29 miles in compass, rising out of the sea like a pyramid, and almost round. But though so small, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch has made it to turn to very good account, and it is said to contain 5000 whites and 15,000 negroes. The sides of the mountain are disposed in very pretty settlements, but they have neither springs nor rivers. They raise here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade, for which, however, it is not so well situate; and it has drawn the same advantage from its constant neutrality. The Dutch first took possession of this island in the year 1635.

CURASSOU, or CURACAO.... Situate in 12 degrees north latitude, 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long, and 10 broad. It seems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders should everywhere, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting against an unfriendly nature; for this island is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America. Yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largest, and by far one of the most elegant and cleanly towns in the West Indies. The public buildings are numer-

ous and handsome; the private houses commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock. Though this island is naturally barren, the industry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a considerable quantity both of tobacco and sugar: it has, besides, good salt-works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this island of most advantage to the Dutch is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The other islands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconsiderable in themselves, and should be regarded as appendages to Curassou, for which they are chiefly employed in raising cattle and other provisions.

The small islands of Saba and St. Martin's, situate at no great distance from St. Eustatia, are of very little importance.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS....An inconsiderable island of the Caribbees, is situate in 64 degrees west longitude, and 18 north latitude, about 15 miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, or SANTA CRUZ....Another small and unhealthy island, lying about five leagues east of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadest. These islands, so long as they remained in the hands of the Danish West India company, were ill-managed, and of little consequence to the Danes: but that wise and benevolent prince the late king of Denmark bought up the company's stock, and laid the trade open; and since that time the island of St. Thomas has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of 3000 hogsheads of sugar of 1000 weight each, and others of the West India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for sale: and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish main, and return with money, in specie or bars, and valuable merchandise. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect desert a few years since, it is beginning to thrive very fast; several persons from the English islands, some of them of very great wealth, have gone to settle there, and have received very great encouragement. These islands were taken by the English in 1801, during the short war between England and Denmark on account of the convention of neutrality, but restored a few months afterwards when that dispute was adjusted.

ISLANDS OF THE SOUTH SEA, AND LATE DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been considerably augmented by many late discoveries, and especially by those that have been made by British navigators in the present reign, which have been numerous and important. Of these discoveries we shall here give a compendious account.

OTAHEITE, OR KING GEORGE'S ISLAND.

THIS island was discovered by captain Wallis, in the Dolphin,* on the 19th of June, 1767. It is situate between the 17th degree 28

* The Dolphin was sent out under the command of captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expence of the British government, in August 1766, in order to make discoveries in the Southern Hemisphere. These vessels proceeded together, till they came within sight of the South Sea, at the western entrance of the Strait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June 1767, captain Wallis discovered an island, about four miles long and three wide, to which he gave the name of Whitsun-Island, it being discovered on Whitsun-eve. Its latitude is 19 degrees 26 minutes south, and its longitude 137 degrees 55 minutes west. The next day he discovered another island, to which he gave the name of Queen Charlotte's Island. The inhabitants of this island, captain Wallis says, were of a middle stature, dark complexion, and long black hair, which hung loose over their shoulders. The men were well made, and the women handsome. Their clothing was a kind of coarse cloth or matting, which was fastened about their middle, and seemed capable of being brought up round their shoulders. This island is about six miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude 19 degrees 18 minutes south, and longitude 138 degrees 4 minutes west. In the space of a few days after, he also discovered several other small islands, to which he gave the names of Egmont Island, Gloucester Island, Cumberland Island, Prince William Henry's Island, and Osnaburgh Island.

On the 19th of the same month he discovered the island of Otaheite: and after he had quitted that island, he discovered, on the 28th of July 1767, another island about six miles long, which he called Sir Charles Saunders's Island; and on the 30th of the same month, another about ten miles long and four broad, which he called Lord Howe's Island. After having discovered some other small islands, one of which was named Wallis's Island, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November; at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February, 1768; and his ship anchored safely in the Downs on the 20th of May following.

Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, after he had parted with captain Wallis in the Dolphin, having passed through the Straits of Magellan, and made some stay at the island of Massafuero, discovered, on the 2d of July, 1767, an island about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of Pitcairn's Island. It lies in latitude 25 degrees 2 minutes south longitude, 133 degrees 21 minutes west,

minutes, and the 17th degree 53 minutes south latitude, and between the 149th degree 11 minutes, and the 149th degree 39 minutes west longitude. It consists of two peninsulas, of a somewhat circular form, joined by an isthmus, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form several excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almost any number of the largest ships. The face of the country is very extraordinary; for a border of low land almost entirely surrounds each peninsula, and behind this border the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of these divisions, and these form mountains that may be seen at sixty leagues distance. The soil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, forming the most delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the sea is in few places more than a mile and a half broad; and this, together with some of the vallies, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis made some stay at this island; and it was afterwards visited again by captain Cook, in the Endeavour, in April, 1769. That commander was accompanied by sir Joseph Banks, and Dr. Solander; and these gentlemen, together with the captain, made a very accurate survey of the island.

Some parts of the island of Otaheite are very populous; and captain Cook was of opinion, that the number of inhabitants on the whole island amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion, the men are tall, strong, well-limbed, and finely shaped; the women are of an inferior size, but handsome and very amorous. Their clothing consists of cloth or matting of different kinds; and the greatest part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa-nuts, bananas, bread-fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit. Their houses, those which are of a middling size, are of an oblong square, about twenty-four feet long, and eleven wide, with a shelving roof supported on three rows of posts, parallel to each other, one row on each side, and one in the middle. The utmost height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each side reach to within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the rest is open, no part being inclosed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor covered some inches deep with soft hay, over which they lay mats, upon which they sit in the day, and sleep in the night. They have no tools among them made of metal; and those they use are made of stones, or some kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otaheite are remarkable for their cleanliness; for both men and women constantly wash their whole bodies in running water three times a day. Their language is soft and melodious, and abounds with vowels. There were no tame animals

and about a thousand leagues to the westward of the continent of America. The 11th of the same month he discovered another small island, to which he gave the name of the Bishop of Osnaburgh's Island. The next day he discovered two other small islands, which he called the Duke of Gloucester's Islands. The following month he discovered a cluster of small islands, to which he gave the name of Queen Charlotte's Islands, and also three others, which he named Gower's Island, Simpson's Island, and Carteret's Island. On the 24th of the same month he discovered Sir Charles Hardy's Island, which lies in latitude 4 degrees 50 minutes south, and the next day Winchelsea's Island, which is distant about ten leagues in the direction of south by east. He afterwards discovered several other islands, and proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March, 1769.

upon the island but hogs, dogs, and poultry; but the English and Spaniards have since carried thither bulls, cows, sheep, goats, a horse and mare, geese, ducks, peacocks, turkeys, and also cats. The only wild animals are tropical birds, paroquets, pigeons, ducks, and a few other birds; rats, and a very few serpents. The sea, however, supplies the inhabitants with a very great variety of the most excellent fish.

In other countries the men cut their hair short, and the women pride themselves on its length; but here the women always cut it short round their ears, and the men (except the fishers, who are almost continually in the water) suffer it to spread over their shoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. They have the custom of discolouring the skin, by pricking it with a small instrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattooing. This is performed upon the youth of both sexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on several parts of the body, and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three kinds, made of the bark of three different kinds of trees. The finest and whitest is made of the Chinese paper-mulberry-tree, and this is chiefly worn by the principal people. Another considerable manufacture is matting, some of which is finer, and in every respect better, than any made in Europe. The coarser sort serves them to sleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are likewise very dexterous in making wicker-work; their baskets are of a thousand different patterns, and many of them exceedingly neat. The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one supreme Deity, but at the same time acknowledge a variety of subordinate deities; they offer up their prayers without the use of idols, and believe the existence of the soul in a separate state, where there are two situations, of different degrees of happiness. Among these people a subordination is established, which somewhat resembles the early state of the European nations under the feudal system. If a general attack happens to be made upon the island, every district is obliged to furnish its proportion of soldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity, and clubs of about six or seven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are constructed for warlike operations.

THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

OF the several islands so called, and which were discovered by captain Cook,* in the year 1769, the principal are Huaheine, Ulitea,

* At the close of the year 1767, it was resolved by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to send persons into some parts of the South Sea, to observe a transit of the planet Venus over the Sun's disk, which, according to astronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769; and that the islands called Marquesas de Mendosa, or those of Rotterdam or Amsterdam, were the properest places then known for making such observations. In consequence of these resolutions, it was recommended to his majesty, in a memorial from the society, dated February, 1768, that he would be pleased to order such an observation to be made; upon which his majesty signified to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty his pleasure that a ship should be provided to carry such observers as the society should think fit, to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark, of three hundred and seventy tons, was prepared for that purpose. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was soon after, by the Royal Society, appointed, with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had long been assistant to Dr. Bradley at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, to observe the transit. But while this vessel was getting ready for her expedition, captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by Lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for this astronomical observation, he, by letter, dated on board the Dolphin, the 18th of May, 1768, the day before he landed at Hastings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the island of Otaheite; the Royal Society, therefore, by letter, dated the beginning of June, in answer to an application from the Admiralty, to be informed whether they would have their observers sent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook set sail from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 26th of August, 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joseph Banks, esq. and Dr. Solander. They made no discovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon Island, Two Groups, Bird Island, and Chain Island; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April, 1769. During their stay at that island, they had the opportunity of making very accurate inquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants; and, on the 4th of June, the whole passage of the planet Venus over the Sun's disk was observed by them with great advantage. The result of their observations may be found in the Philosophical Transactions. After his departure from Otaheite, captain Cook discovered and visited the Society Islands and Oheteroa, and thence proceeded to the south till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees 22 minutes, longitude 147 degrees 29 minutes W. and afterwards made an accurate survey of the coast of New Zealand. In November he discovered a chain of islands, which he called Barrier Islands. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guinea; and in September, 1770, arrived at the island of Savu, from whence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June, 1771.

Soon after captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was resolved to equip two ships, in order to make further discoveries in the southern hemisphere. Accordingly the Resolution and the Adventure were appointed for that purpose: the first was commanded by captain Cook, and the latter by captain Tobias Furneaux. They sailed from Plymouth Sound on the 13th of July, 1772; and on the 29th of the same month arrived at the island of Madeira. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope: and in February, 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having sought in vain for a southern continent. In that month the Resolution and the Adventure separated, in consequence of a thick fog, but they joined company again in Queen Charlotte's Sound, on the 18th of May following. In August they arrived at Otaheite; and in September they discovered Harvey's Island. On the second of October they came to Middleburgh, one of the Friendly Islands; and about the close of that month the Resolution and the Adventure were separated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Resolution, in order to make discoveries in the southern polar regions, but was stopped in his progress by the ice, in the latitude of 71 degrees 10 minutes south;

Otaha, and Bolabola. Huaheine is about 31 leagues to the north-west of Otaheite, and its productions are exactly the same, but it appears to be a month forwarder. The inhabitants seem to be larger made, and more stout, than those of Otaheite. Mr. Banks measured one of the men, and found him to be six feet three inches and a half high; yet they are so indolent that he could not persuade one of them to go up to the hills with him; for they said, if they were to attempt it the fatigue would kill them. The women are fairer than those of Otaheite, and both sexes appear less timid, and less curious; though in their dress, language, and almost every other circumstance, they are the same. Their houses are neat, and they have boat-houses that are remarkably large. Ulitea is about seven or eight leagues to the south-westward of Huaheine, and is a much larger island, but appears neither so fertile nor so populous. The principal refreshments to be procured here are plantains, cocóá-nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls; but the two last are rather scarce. Otaha is divided from Ulitea by a strait, that in the narrowest part is not above two miles broad. This island affords two good harbours, and its produce is of the same kind as that of the other islands. About four leagues to the north-west of Otaha lies Bolabola, which is sur-

longitude 100 degrees 54 minutes west. He then proceeded to Easter Island, where he arrived in March, 1774, as he did also in the same month at the Marquesas Islands. He afterwards discovered four islands, which he named Palliser's Islands; and again steered for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of April, and made some stay, and also visited the neighbouring isles. In August he came to the New Hebrides, some of which were first discovered by him. After leaving these islands, he steered to the southward a few days, and discovered New Caledonia. Having surveyed the south-west coast of this island, captain Cook steered again for New Zealand, in order to refresh his crew, and put his ship into a condition to encounter the danger attending the navigation in the high southern latitudes. Directing his course to the south and east, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 55 degrees 6 minutes south, longitude 138 degrees 56 minutes west, without meeting with any continent, captain Cook gave up all hopes of discovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a resolution to steer directly for the west entrance of the Straits of Magellan, with a view of coasting and surveying the outermost or south side of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in about the latitude of 53 or 55, and steering nearly east, he arrived off the western mouth of the Straits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in his new route. In January, 1775, he discovered a large and dreary island, to which he gave the name of South Georgia. He afterwards discovered various capes and elevated snow-clad coasts, to the most southern part of which he gave the name of the Southern Thule, as being the nearest land to that pole which has yet been discovered. In February he discovered Sandwich Land, and several islands covered with snow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July, 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned to England in the *Adventure* a year before, having proceeded home round the Cape of Good Hope without making any remarkable discovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by some of the savages of New Zealand; so that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof that cannibals really exist; and, indeed, in the course of these voyages of discovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to captain Cook, in the course of his voyage in the *Resolution*, he had made the circuit of the southern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traversed it in such a manner, as to leave not the least room for the possibility of there being a southern continent, unless near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deserves also to be remembered, in honour of that able commander, captain Cook, that, with a company of a hundred and eighty men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates from fifty-two degrees north to seventy-one degrees south, with the loss of only one man by sickness; and this appears, in a considerable degree, to have arisen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preserving the health of his men.

rounded by a reef of rocks and several small islands, all of which are no more than eight leagues in compass. To these islands, and those of Marua, which lie about fourteen miles to the westward of Bola-bola, containing six in all, captain Cook gave the name of Society Islands.

OHETEROA.

THIS island is situate in the latitude of 22 degrees, 27 minutes south, and in the longitude of 150 degrees, 47 minutes, west from Greenwich. It is thirteen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither so populous nor so fertile as some of the other islands in these seas. The inhabitants are lusty and well made, but are rather browner than those of Otaheite. The principal weapons are long lances made of etoa wood, which is very hard, and some of them are nearly twenty feet long.

THE NAVIGATORS' ISLANDS.

THESE islands, which were discovered by M. de Bougainville, and explored by the unfortunate De la Prouse in 1787, are ten in number, and called by the natives Opoun, Leone, Fanfoue, Maouna, Oyolava, Calinasse, Pola, Shika, Ossamo, and Ouera. Opoun, the most southerly as well as the most easterly of these islands, lies in 14 degrees, 7 minutes south latitude, and 169 degrees, 7 minutes, west longitude. At Maouna, M. de la Prouse, commander of the French ships the Boussole and Astrolabe, met with his first fatal accident; M. de Langle, captain of the Astrolabe, and eleven officers and sailors, being massacred by the natives. Oyolava is separated from Maouna by a channel about nine leagues wide, and is at least equal to Otaheite in extent, fertility, and population. The island of Pola is somewhat smaller than that of Oyolava, but equally beautiful. The eastern islands, Opoun, Leone, and Fanfoue, are small, especially the last two, which are about five miles in circumference; but Maouna, Oyolava, and Pola, may be numbered amongst the largest and most beautiful islands of the South Sea. They combine the advantages of a soil fruitful without culture, and a climate that renders clothing unnecessary. They produce in abundance the bread-fruit, cocoa-nut, the banana, the guava, and the orange. The inhabitants are a strong and handsome race of men. Their usual height is five feet ten or eleven inches, and six feet; but their stature is less astonishing than the colossal proportions of the different parts of their bodies. The men have the body painted or tattooed, so that any one would suppose them clothed, though they go almost naked. They have only a girdle of sea-weeds, encircling their loins, which comes down to their knees, and gives them the appearance of the river gods of mythology. Their hair is very long, and they often

twist it round their heads, and thus add to their native ferocity of countenance, which always expresses either surprise or anger. The stature of the women is proportional to that of the men. They are tall, slender, and not without grace, though in general disgusting from their gross effrontery and indecency. The inhabitants of these islands cultivate several arts with success. Their houses have even a kind of elegance, and they finish their work very neatly, with tools made of a very fine and compact species of basalt, in the form of an adze. They manufacture very fine mats, and some paper stuffs. They are almost continually on the water, and do not go so much as from one village to another on foot, but perform all their journeys in canoes; on which account M. de Bougainville called these islands the Navigators' Islands. Their villages are all situate in creeks by the sea-side, and have no paths from one to the other. In their disposition they appear to be thievish, treacherous, and ferocious.



THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

THESE islands were so named by captain Cook, in the year 1773, on account of the friendship which appeared to subsist among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to strangers. Abel Jansen Tasman, an eminent Dutch navigator, first touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal islands. Captain Cook laboriously explored the whole cluster, which he found to consist of more than sixty. The three islands which Tasman saw, he named New Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburg. The first is the largest, and extends about twenty-one miles from east to west, and about thirteen from north to south. These islands are inhabited by a race of Indians, who cultivate the earth with great industry. The island of Amsterdam is intersected by straight and pleasant roads, with fruit trees on each side, which afford shade from the scorching heat of the sun.

The principal of these islands are, Tongataboo, or Amsterdam; Eaoowe, or Middleburg; Annamooka, or Rotterdam; Hapaee, and Lefooga. The first, which is the largest, lies in 21 degrees 9 minutes south latitude, and 174 degrees 46 minutes west longitude. Eaoowe, when viewed from the ship at anchor, formed one of the most beautiful prospects in nature, and very different from the others of the Friendly Isles; which, being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them: whereas here the land, rising gently to a considerable height, presented an extensive prospect, with groves of trees interspersed at irregular distances, in beautiful disorder; the rest is covered with grass, except near the shores, which are entirely covered with fruit and other trees; amongst which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the island as possible, captain Cook and some of his officers walked up to the highest point of it. From this place they had a view of almost the whole island, which consisted of beautiful meadows, of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. "While I was surveying this delightful prospect," says captain Cook, "I could not help flattering myself

with the pleasing idea, that some future navigator may, from the same station, behold these meadows stocked with cattle brought to these islands by the ships of England; and that the completion of this single benevolent purpose, independent of all other considerations, would sufficiently mark to posterity that our voyages had not been useless to the general interests of humanity."

THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS.

THESE islands were first discovered by Quiros in 1595: their situation was better ascertained by captain Cook in 1774. They are five in number, and named St. Cristina, Magdalena, St. Dominica, St. Pedro, and Hood. Captain Cook, in his second voyage, lay some time at the first of these, which is situate in 9 degrees 55 minutes south latitude, and 139 degrees 9 minutes west longitude. St. Domingo is the largest, about 16 leagues in circuit. The inhabitants, their language, manners, and clothing, with the vegetable productions, are nearly the same as those of the Society Isles.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

THIS name was given by captain Cook to a cluster of islands, the most northerly of which was seen by Quiros, the Spanish navigator, in 1606, and by him named Terra del Espiritu Santo. From that time until captain Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was supposed to be part of a great southern continent, called *Terra Australis Incognita*. But when captain Cook had sailed round New Zealand, and along the eastern coast of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the Resolution, he resolved to explore those parts accurately; and accordingly, in 1774, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, discovered several in the group which were before unknown. The New Hebrides are situated between the latitudes of 14 degrees 29 minutes, and 20 degrees 4 minutes south; and between 166 degrees 41 minutes, and 170 degrees 21 minutes east longitude. They consist of the following islands, some of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. Terra del Espiritu Santo, Malli-collo, St. Bartholomew, Isle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitsuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Appee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Irnonan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not far distant from the New Hebrides, and south-westward of them, lies NEW CALEDONIA, a very large island, first discovered by captain Cook in 1774. It is about eighty-seven leagues long, but its breadth does not any where exceed ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well-proportioned Indians, of a swarthy or dark chesnut brown. A few leagues distant, are two small islands, called the Island of Pines, and Botany Island.

NEW ZEALAND.

THIS country was first discovered by Tasman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Island, though it has been generally distinguished in our maps and charts by the name of New Zealand, and was supposed to be part of a southern continent; but it is now known, from the late discoveries of captain Cook, who sailed round it, to consist of two large islands, divided from each other by a strait four or five leagues broad. They are situate between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees south, and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees east from Greenwich. One of these islands is for the most part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of Sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants, would flourish here in the utmost luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is supposed that the winters are milder than those in England, and the summers not hotter, though more equably warm: so that it is imagined, if this country were settled by people from Europe, that they would, with moderate industry, be soon supplied not only with the necessaries, but the luxuries of life, in great abundance. Here are forests of vast extent, filled with very large timber trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been described by naturalists. The inhabitants of New Zealand are stout and robust, and equal in stature to the largest Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been exposed to the sun, and in many not so deep; and both sexes have good features. Their dress is very uncouth, and they mark or tattoo their bodies in a manner similar to the inhabitants of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle axes; and they have generally shown themselves very hostile to the Europeans who have visited them.

NEW HOLLAND.

THE largest island in the world, and formerly supposed to be a part of that imaginary continent called Terra Australis Incognita, lies between 10 degrees 30 minutes, and 43 degrees south latitude, and between 140 and 155 degrees 30 minutes east longitude; equaling in extent the whole continent of Europe, the eastern coast running not less than 2000 miles in length from north-east to south-west. Its dimensions from east to west have not been so exactly ascertained, as we are obliged to take our information concerning them from the accounts of navigators of different nations, who visited this part of the world at a time when the method of making observations, and finding the latitudes and longitudes of places, was less accurate than it is now. Different parts of the country have been called by the

names of the discoverers, as Van Diemen's Land,* Carpentaria, &c. and though the general appellation of the whole was New Holland, it is now applied by geographers to the north and west parts of the country. The eastern part, called New South Wales, was taken possession of in his majesty's name by captain Cook, and now forms a part of the British dominions, a colony having been formed there, chiefly of the convicts sentenced to transportation.

The accounts of the climate and soil of this extensive country, now become an object of importance to Great Britain, are very various : different parts have been explored at different times, and at different seasons of the year. In general, however, the relations are by no means favourable ; the sea-coast, the only place on which any inhabitants have been discovered, appears to be sandy and barren ; and as for the inland parts, which might reasonably be supposed more fertile, they are now thought to be wholly uninhabited : but whether this proceeds from the natural sterility of the soil, or the barbarism of the inhabitants, who know not how to cultivate it, is not yet discovered.

The celebrated navigator, captain Cook, spent upwards of four months in surveying the eastern coast, the extent of which, as has already been mentioned, is nearly 2000 miles. The bay in which he anchored, from the great quantity of undescribed plants found on the shore, was called Botany Bay, and is the place for which the convicts were originally destined ; though now they are settled in another part of the island, about fifteen miles to the northward, named, by captain Cook, Port Jackson, the principal settlement being called Sydney Cove.

This was not visited or explored by captain Cook ; it was seen at the distance of between two and three miles from the coast ; but, had fortune conducted him into the harbour, he would have found it much more worthy of his attention, as a seaman, than Botany Bay, where he passed a week. From an entrance not more than two miles broad, Port Jackson gradually extends into a noble and capacious basin, having sounding sufficient for the largest vessels, and space to accommodate, in perfect security, any number that could be assembled. It runs, chiefly in a western direction, about thirteen miles into the country, and contains no less than a hundred small coves formed by narrow necks of land, whose projections afford shelter from the winds.

SYDNEY COVE lies on the south side of the harbour, between five and six miles from the entrance. The neck of land that forms this cove is mostly covered with wood, yet is so rocky, that it is not easy to comprehend how the trees could have found sufficient nourishment to bring them to so considerable a magnitude. The soil in other parts of the coast, immediately about Port Jackson, is of various qualities. This neck of land, which divides the south end of the harbour from the sea, is chiefly sand. Between Sidney Cove and Botany Bay the first space is occupied by a wood, in some parts a mile and a half, in others three miles broad. Beyond that is a kind of heath, poor, sandy, and full of swamps ; but as far as the eye can reach to the westward, the country is one continued wood.

The climate at Sydney Cove is considered, on the whole, as equal to the finest in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are seldom any fogs. The soil, though in general light and

* This has lately been discovered to be an island 160 miles long and 80 broad, separated from New Holland by a channel 50 leagues wide.

rather sandy in this part, is full as good as usually is found so near the sea-side. All the plants and fruit trees brought from Brasil and the Cape, which were not damaged in the passage, thrive exceedingly; and vegetables have now become plentiful, both the European sorts, and such as are peculiar to New South Wales.

The natives of New Holland, in general, seem to have no great aversion to the new settlers; the only acts of hostility they ever committed were on account of their occupying the fishing grounds which the New Hollanders justly supposed to belong to themselves. They appear, however, to be in too savage a state to be capable as yet of deriving any instruction from their new neighbours. They are so ignorant of agriculture, that it seems most probable they do not even know the use of corn, and therefore, perhaps more from ignorance than malice, set fire to that which the colonists had raised for their own use. They are of a low stature and ill made: their noses are flat, their nostrils wide, their eyes sunk, their eye-brows and lips thick, with a mouth of prodigious width, but the teeth white and even. Both sexes go entirely naked, and seem to have no more shame in discovering the whole body than we have in discovering our hands and face. They however have their ornaments: they paint themselves in various colours; and some of them perforate the cartilage of the nose and thrust a large bone or reed through it, which captain Cook's sailors humorously called their sprit-sail-yard. Most of the men want one of the foreteeth in the upper jaw; and it is common for the women to cut off two joints of the little finger. They are extremely superstitious, but active, vigorous, and display great personal bravery on the appearance of danger.

For a more particular account of this new settlement, we refer our readers to the Voyage of governor Philip to Botany Bay; and Collins's History of the Colony of New South Wales.

NEW GUINEA,

TILL the late discoveries, was thought to be the north coast of an extensive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but captain Cook discovered a strait between them, which runs north-east, through which he sailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow island, extending north-east from the second degree of south latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees east longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country consists of a mixture of very high hills and vallies, interspersed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, plantains, bread-fruit, and most of the trees, shrubs and plants, that are found on the other South Sea islands. It affords from the sea a variety of delightful prospects. The inhabitants make nearly the same appearance as the New Hollanders on the other side of the straits.

To the north of New Guinea is New Britain, which is situate in the fourth degree of south latitude, and one hundred and fifty two degrees nineteen minutes east longitude from Greenwich. It was supposed to be part of an imaginary continent, till captain Dampier

found it to be an island, and sailed through a strait which divides it from New Guinea. Captain Carteret, in his voyage round the world, in 1767, found it was of much less extent than it was till then imagined to be, by sailing through another strait to the north, which separates it from a long island, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and stately trees. To the eastward of New Britain, and in both the above straits, are many islands, most of which are said to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

NEW IRELAND extends in length, from the north-east to the south-west, about two hundred and seventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black and woolly-headed, like the negroes of Guinea, but have not their flat noses and thick lips. North-westward of New Ireland, a cluster of islands was seen by captain Carteret, lying very near each other, and supposed to consist of twenty or thirty in number. One of these, which is of very considerable extent, was named NEW HANOVER; the rest of the cluster received the name of the ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

THE PELEW ISLANDS.

The existence and situation of these islands were probably known to the Spaniards at a distant period; but from a report among the neighbouring islands, of their being inhabited by a savage race of cannibals, it appears that there never had been the least communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope packet (belonging to the East-India company) was wrecked on one of them, in August 1783. From the accounts given of these islands, by captain Wilson, who commanded the packet, it appears that they are situate between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of east longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a N. E. and S. W. direction. They are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate temperate and agreeable; the lands produce sugar-cane, yams, cocoa-nuts, plantains, bananas, oranges, and lemons; and the surrounding seas abound with the finest and greatest variety of fish.

The natives of these islands are a stout, well-made people, above the middle stature: their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is understood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two small aprons, one behind and one before, made of the husks of the cocoa-nut dyed with different shades of yellow.

The government is monarchical, and the king is absolute, but his power is exercised more with the mildness of a father than a sovereign. In the language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour; he occasionally creates his nobles, called Rupacks or chiefs, and confers a singular honour of knighthood, called the Order of the

Bone, the members of which are distinguished by wearing a bone on their arm.

The idea which the account published by captain Wilson, gives us of these islanders, is that of a people who, though naturally ignorant of the arts and sciences, and living in the simplest state of nature, yet possess all that genuine politeness, that delicacy, and chastity of intercourse between the sexes, that respect for personal property, that subordination to government, and those habits of industry, which are so rarely united in the more civilized societies of modern times.

It appears that when the English were thrown on one of these islands, they were received by the natives with the greatest humanity and hospitality; and, till their departure, experienced the utmost courtesy and attention. "They felt our people were distressed, and in consequence wished they should share whatever they had to give. It was not that worldly munificence that bestows and spreads its favours with a distant eye to retribution. It was the pure emotion of native benevolence. It was the love of man to man. It was a scene that pictures human nature in triumphant colouring; and whilst their liberality gratified the sense, their virtue struck the heart."

INGRAHAM'S ISLANDS.

THESE islands were discovered by captain Joseph Ingraham, of Boston, commander of the brigantine Hope, on the 19th of April, 1791. They lie N. W. from the Marquesas Islands, from 35 to 50 leagues distant, in about 9° of south latitude, and from 140 to 141 west longitude from London. They are seven in number, and were named by captain Ingraham, Washington, Admas, Lincoln, Federal, Franklin, Hancock, Knox.

Most if not all of these islands are inhabited, and appear generally to be diversified with hills and vallies, and to be well wooded, and very pleasant. The people resemble those of the Marquesas Islands, as do their canoes, which are carved at each end. They appeared friendly.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

BESIDES the voyages of discovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by captain Cook and captain Clerke, in the Resolution and Discovery, during the year 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in search of a north-west passage between the continents of Asia and America. After they arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland. In their course they discovered two islands which captain Cook called Prince Edward's Isles. The largest, about 15 leagues in circuit, is in latitude 46 degrees 53 minutes south; long. 37 degrees 46 minutes; the other, about nine leagues in circuit, latitude 46 degrees and 40 minutes, and

longitude 38 degrees 8 minutes east, both barren, and almost covered with snow. From New Holland they sailed to New Zealand, and afterwards they visited the Friendly and the Society Isles. In January, 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich Isles, which are twelve in number, and are situate between 22 degrees 15 minutes and 18 degrees 53 minutes north latitude. The air of these islands is in general salubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the same with those of the Society and Friendly Isles. The inhabitants are of a middle size, stout, and well made, and their complexion in general a brown olive. On the 7th of February, being nearly in latitude 44 degrees 33 minutes north, and longitude 235 degrees 36 minutes east, they saw part of the American continent, bearing north-east. They afterwards discovered King George's Sound, which is situate on the north-west coast of America, and is extensive; that part of it where the ships under the command of captain Cook anchored, is in latitude 49 degrees 36 minutes north, and longitude 233 degrees 28 minutes east. The whole sound is surrounded by high land, which in some places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle size, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they discovered Sandwich Sound in latitude 59 degrees 54 minutes north. The harbour in which the ships anchored, appeared to be almost surrounded with high land, which was covered with snow; and here they were visited by some of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the island of Unalaskika; and after their departure from thence still continued to trace the American coast, till they discovered the strait which separates it from the continent of Asia. Here both the hemispheres presented to the view a naked and flat country, without any defence, and the sea between them not very deep. They passed the strait, and arrived on the 20th of August, 1778, in latitude 70 degrees 54 minutes, longitude 194 degrees 55 minutes, where they found themselves almost surrounded with ice, and the further they proceeded to the eastward the closer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a storm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a consultation was therefore held on board the Resolution, as soon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was resolved, that as this passage was impracticable for any useful purpose of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it should be prosecuted no further; and especially on account of the condition the ships were in, the approach of winter, and their great distance from any known place of refreshment. The voyage, indeed, afforded sufficient evidence, that no practicable passage exists between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the north; and this voyage also ascertained the western boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return, it unfortunately happened that the celebrated and able navigator, captain Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives on the island of O'why'hee, one of the Sandwich Isles, on the 14th of February, 1779; not so much by his own rashness, as through the inadvertence and neglect of some of his own people. His death was universally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but also in other parts of Europe, by those to whom his merits and public services were known. In his last voyage he had explored the coast of America, from 42 degrees 27 minutes to 70 degrees 40 minutes 57 seconds

north. After the death of captain Cook, the command devolved on captain Clerke, who died at sea, on his return to the southward, on the 22d day of August, 1779. The two ships returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October, 1780, anchored at the Nore.

We cannot conclude this article without inserting the following character of captain Cook, to perpetuate the memory and services of so excellent a navigator.

"Perhaps no science ever received greater additions from the labours of a single man than geography has done from those of captain Cook. In his first voyage to the South Seas, he discovered the Society Islands; determined the insularity of New Zealand; discovered the straits which separate the two islands, and are called after his name; and made a complete survey of both. He afterwards explored the eastern coast of New Holland, hitherto unknown, an extent of twenty-seven degrees of latitude, or upwards of two thousand miles.

"In his second expedition, he resolved the great problem of a southern continent, having traversed that hemisphere between the latitude of forty and seventy degrees, in such a manner as not to leave a possibility of its existence, unless near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage he discovered New Caledonia, the largest island in the Southern Pacific Ocean, except New Zealand; the Island of Georgia; and an unknown coast which he named Sandwich Land, the Thule of the southern hemisphere; and having twice visited the tropical seas, he settled the situations of the old, and made several new discoveries.

"But the last voyage is distinguished above all the rest, by the extent and importance of its discoveries. Besides several smaller islands in the Southern Pacific, he discovered to the north of the equinoctial line the group called the Sandwich Islands, which, from their situation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of consequence in the system of European navigation than any other discovery in the South Sea. He afterwards explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the western coast of America, from the latitude of forty-three to seventy degrees north, containing an extent of three thousand and five hundred miles; ascertained the proximity of the two great continents of Asia and America; passed the straits between them, and surveyed the coast on each side, to such a height of northern latitude, as to demonstrate the impracticability of a passage, in that hemisphere, from the Atlantic into the Pacific Ocean, either by an eastern or a western coast. In short, if we except the Sea of Amur, and the Japanese archipelago, which still remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he has completed the hydrography of the habitable globe.

"The method which he discovered, and so successfully pursued, of preserving the health of seamen, forms a new æra in navigation, and will transmit his name to future ages amongst the friends and benefactors of mankind.

"Those who are conversant in naval history need not be told at how dear a rate the advantages which have been sought through the medium of long voyages at sea have always been purchased. That dreadful disorder which is peculiar to their service, and whose ravages have marked the tracks of discoverers with circumstances almost too shocking to relate, must, without exercising an unwarrantable

tyranny over the lives of our seamen, have proved an insuperable obstacle to the prosecution of such enterprises. It was reserved for captain Cook to show the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unusual length of three or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminishing the probability of life, in the smallest degree."

NORTH-WEST COAST OF AMERICA.

FROM the observations made by captain Cook on the inhabitants of the western coast of North America, in the neighbourhood of Prince William's Sound, and to the latitude of 64 degrees north, it appeared that a strong similarity was discernible between them and the Esquimaux on the eastern coast; whence it was conjectured by some that a communication by sea existed between the eastern and western sides of that continent. In support of this conjecture old accounts were revived of the discoveries of John de Fuca, and De Fonte or De Fuentes; the one a Greek pilot, who made his voyage in 1592, and the other a Spanish or Portuguese admiral, who sailed in 1640. John de Fuca had related that between the 47th and 48th degrees of north latitude he had entered a broad inlet which led him into a far broader sea, wherein he sailed above twenty days; and De Fonte had sailed through crooked channels in an extensive archipelago 260 leagues, and 60 leagues up a navigable river which flowed into it, in 53 degrees of north latitude, and communicated, by other lakes and rivers, with a passage in which a ship had arrived from Boston in New England. The truth of these ancient accounts appeared to be strongly corroborated, some years since, by the discovery said to be made by one Mr. Etches, who had fitted out some ships for the fur trade, that all the western coast of America, from latitude 48° to 57° north, was no continued tract of land, but a chain of islands which had never been explored, and that these concealed the entrance to a vast inland sea, like the Baltic or Mediterranean in Europe, and which seemed likewise to be full of islands. Among these, Mr. Etches's ship, the *Princess Royal*, was said to have penetrated several hundred leagues, in a north-east direction, till they came within 200 leagues of Hudson's Bay; but as the intention of their voyage was merely commercial, they had not time fully to explore the archipelago just mentioned, nor did they arrive at the termination of this new Mediterranean sea.

The existence of any such inland sea is, however, now completely disproved by the voyage of the late captain Vancouver, who, during the summers of 1792, 1793, and 1794, explored and accurately surveyed the whole western coast of North America, from latitude 30° to 60°. Between the 47th and 57th degrees of north latitude, there is indeed an archipelago, composed of innumerable islands and crooked channels; but he no where found either the inlet of John de Fuca, the river of De Fonte, or the inland sea of Mr. Etches's ship. "The precision," says captain Vancouver, "with which the survey of the coast of North West America has been carried into effect,

will, I trust, remove every doubt, and set aside every opinion of a north-west passage, or any water communication navigable for shipping, existing between the North Pacific and the interior of the American continent, within the limit of our researches."

This coast, with very little deviation, has the appearance of one continued forest, being covered with pines of different species, intermixed with alder, birch, and other trees. The natives of the northern parts are in general short in stature, with faces flat and round, high cheek-bones, and flat noses. They have some very peculiar customs of mutilating or disfiguring their persons, probably by way of ornament, though to us they appear disgusting and even hideous. At port Trinidad, in latitude 41 degrees north, the custom, says captain Vancouver, "was particularly singular, and must be attended with much pain in the first instance, and great inconvenience ever after. All the teeth of both sexes were, by some process, ground uniformly down, horizontally to the gums; the women especially, carrying the fashion to an extreme, had their teeth reduced even below this level; and ornamented the lower lip with three perpendicular rows of puncturation, one from each corner of the mouth, and one in the middle, occupying three-fifths of the lip and chin." On other parts of this coast the women make a horizontal incision in the under lip, extending from one corner of the mouth to the other, entirely through the flesh, which orifice is by degrees sufficiently stretched to admit an ornament made of wood, which is confined close to the gums of the lower jaw, with the external surface projecting horizontally. These wooden ornaments are oval, and resemble a small oval platter or dish, made concave on both sides; they are of various sizes; some of them above three inches in length, and an inch and a half broad. The chief object of civilized nations in navigating this coast, hitherto, has been to traffic with the natives for furs, which they give in exchange for pieces of iron, nails, beads, pen-knives, and other trifling trinkets. These furs are carried to China, and disposed of at a great profit. The skins obtained are those of the sea-otter, racoon, pine-martin, land-beaver, and earless marmot. Ginseng, copper, oil, and some other commodities, might also be procured.

In 1788, some English merchants, engaged in this trade, formed a settlement in King George's Sound, since called Nootka Sound, from the name by which it is called by the natives. The Spaniards, however, being jealous of the intrusion of the English into a part of the world which they long regarded as their exclusive property, sent a frigate from Mexico, which captured two English vessels, and took possession of the settlement. The British ministry, on receiving intelligence of this transaction, fitted out a powerful armament to give weight to their demand of reparation; but the affair was amicably terminated by a convention in 1790.

Nootka Sound is situate in latitude 49° 33' north, longitude 126° 48' west, on an island about 300 miles in length and 80 in breadth, named by captain Vancouver, in 1792, Quadra and Vancouver's Island, in compliment to seignior Quadra, the Spanish commandant at Nootka.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World. Collected from the most authentic Charts, Maps, and Observations.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
A bbeville,	Somme,	France,	Europe	50-07 N.	1-50 E.
Aberdeen,	Aberdeenshire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-22 N.	1-45 W.
Abo,	Finland,	Sweden,	Europe	60-27 N.	22-13 E.
Acapulco,		Mexico,	N. Amer.	17-10 N.	101-20 W.
Achem,	Sumatra,	East India,	Asia	5-22 N.	95-34 E.
Adrianople,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41-45 N.	26-27 E.
Adriatic sea, or Gulf of Venice,		between Italy and Tur- key,	Europe		Mediterranean Sea.
Adventure Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17 05 S.	144-17 W.
Agde,	Herault,	France,	Europe	43-18 N.	3-27 E.
Agen,	Aveiron,	France,	Europe	44-12 N.	0-36 E.
St. Agnes (lights)	Scillies,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	49-56 N.	6-46 W.
Agra,	Agra,	East India,	Asia	26-43 N.	76-44 E.
Aix,	Mouths of the Rhône,	France,	Europe	43-31 N.	5-8 E.
Albany,	New York,	United States,	N. Amer.	42-59 N.	73-30 W.
Alby,	Tarn,	France,	Europe	43-55 N.	2-08 E.
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	35-11 N.	37-10 E.
Alexandretta,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36-35 N.	36-25 E.
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31-11 N.	30-10 E.
Alexandria,	Dist. of Columbia,	United States,	N. Amer.	38-30 N.	77-08 W.
Algiers,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-49 N.	2-12 E.
Almeida,	Beira,	Portugal,	Europe	40-38 N.	8-15 W.
Amboyna,	Amboyna Isle,	East India,	Asia	4-25 S.	127-25 E.
Ambryn Isle,		S. Pa. Ocean,	Asia	16-09 S.	168-12 E.
Amiens,	Somme,	France,	Europe	49-53 N.	2-18 E.
AMSTERDAM,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-21 N.	4-51 E.
Amsterdam Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-09 S.	174-46 W.
Ancona,	March of Ancona,	Italy,	Europe	43-37 N.	13-29 E.
Angra,	Tercera Isle,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	38-39 N.	27-12 W.
Annapolis,	Maryland,	United States,	N. Amer.	39-00 N.	77-20 W.
Antigua (St. John's town)	Antigua Isle,	Carib. Sea,	N. Amer.	17-04 N.	62-09 W.
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36-10 N.	36-40 E.
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13 N.	4-23 E.
Archipelago,		Islands of Greece,	Europe		Mediterranean Sea.
Apæ Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-46 S.	168-27 E.
Archangel,	Archangel,	Russia,	Europe	64-34 N.	38-59 E.
Ascension Isle,		South Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	7-56 N.	14-00 W.
Astracan,	Astracan,	Russia,	Asia	46-00 N.	47-40 E.
Athens,	Livadia,	Turkey,	Europe	38-05 N.	23-52 E.
St. Augustin,	Madagascar,	South Ind. Sea,	Africa	23-35 S.	43-08 E.
St. Augustine,	East Florida,		N. Amer.	30-10 N.	81-10 W.
Aurora Isle,		S. Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-08 S.	168-17 E.
Ava,	Ava,	East India,	Asia	20-20 N.	95-30 E.
Avignon,	Vaucluse,	France,	Europe	43-57 N.	4-53 E.
Ayr,	Ayrshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30 N.	4-40 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
B Adajoz,	Estremadura,	Spain,	Europe	38-32 N.	6-50 W.
Bagdad,	Eyrac Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia	33-20 N.	43-51 E.
Balasore,	Orissa,	East India,	Asia	21-20 N.	86-05 E.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-30 N.	37-00 E.
Baldivia,	Chili,		S. America	39-35 S.	73-20 W.
Baltic Sea,	between	Ger. & Sweden,	Europe		
Baltimore,	Maryland,	United States,	N. Amer.	39-21 N.	77-48 W.
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe	41-23 N.	2-13 E.
Barbuda Isle,		Atlantic Ocean,	N. Amer.	17-49 N.	61-50 W.
Basse Terre,	Guadaloupe,	Carib. Sea,	N. Amer.	15-59 N.	61-59 W.
Basil,	Basil,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-35 N.	7-30 E.
Bassora,	Eyrac Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia	30-45 N.	47-00 E.
Bastia,	Corsica,	Italy,	Europe	42-30 N.	9-40 E.
Batavia,	Java,	East India,	Asia	06-12 S.	106-53 E.
Bath,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-22 N.	2-16 W.
Bay of Bengal,	Coast of India,		Asia		Indian Ocean.
Bay of Biscay,	Coast of France,		Europe		Atlantic Ocean.
Bayeux,	Calvados,	France,	Europe	49-16 N.	0-42 W.
Bayonne,	Lo. Pyrenees,	France,	Europe	43-29 N.	1-25 W.
Belfast,	Antrim,	Ireland,	Europe	54-35 N.	5-52 W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe	45-00 N.	21-20 E.
Bencoolen,	Sumatra,	East India,	Asia	03-49 S.	102-15 E.
Bender,	Bessarabia,	Turkey,	Europe	46-40 N.	29-00 E.
BERLIN,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe	52-32 N.	13-22 E.
Bermudas,	Bermuda Isles,	Atlantic Ocean,	N. Amer.	32-35 N.	63-23 W.
Bern,	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-00 N.	7-20 E.
Berwick,	Berwickshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	1-45 W.
Bethlehem,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	31-50 N.	35-25 E.
Bilboa,	Biscay,	Spain,	Europe	43-26 N.	3-18 W.
Birmingham,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-30 N.	1-50 W.
Black or Euxine sea,		Turkey in Europe and Asia			
Bolabola Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-32 S.	151-47 W.
Bologna,	Bolognese,	Italy,	Europe	44-29 N.	11-26 E.
Bolscheriskoi,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	52-54 N.	156-42 E.
Bombay,	Bombay Isle,	East India,	Asia	18-56 N.	72-43 E.
Boroughston- ness,	Linlithgowshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	3-44 W.
Boston,	Lincolnshire,	England,	Europe	53-10 N.	0-25 E.
Boston,	New England,	United States,	N. Amer.	42-25 N.	70-32 W.
Boulogne,	Straits of Calais,	France,	Europe	50-43 N.	1-31 E.
Bourbon Isle,		Indian Ocean,	Africa	20-51 S.	55-25 E.
Bourdeaux,	Gironde,	France,	Europe	44-50 N.	0-29 W.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-40 N.	4-40 E.
Bremen,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	53-25 N.	8-20 E.
BRESLAW,	Silesia,	Bohemia,	Europe	51-03 N.	17 13 E.
Brest,	Finisterre,	France,	Europe	48-22 N.	4-29 W.
Bridgetown,	Barbadoes,	Atlantic Ocean,	N. Amer.	13-05 N.	58-35 W.
Bristol,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-33 N.	2-40 W.
Bruges,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-16 N.	3-05 E.
Brunswick,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-30 N.	10-30 E.
Brussels,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-51 N.	4-26 E.
Bucharia,	Usbec	Tartary,	Asia	39-15 N.	67-00 E.
Bucharest,	Walachia,	Turkey,	Europe	44-26 N.	26-13 E.
Buda,	Lower	Hungary,	Europe	47-40 N.	19-20 E.
Buenos Ayres,	La Plata,	Paraguay,	S. Amer.	34-35 S.	58-26 W.
Burlington	Jersey,	United States,	N. Amer.	40-08 N.	75-00 W.
C Abello, P.	Terra Firma,		S. Amer.	10-30 N.	67-27 W.
CACHAO,	Tonquin,	East India,	Asia	21-30 N.	105-00 E.
Cadiz,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	36-31 N.	6-06 W.
Caen,	Calvados,	France,	Europe	49-11 N.	0-16 W.
Cagliari,	Sardinia,	Italy,	Europe	39-25 N.	9-38 E.
Cahors,	Lot,	France,	Europe	44-26 N.	1-31 E.

Names of Places	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Cairo,	Lower Egypt,		Africa	30-02 N.	31-23 E.
Calais,	Straits of Calais, France,		Europe	50-57 N.	1-55 E.
Calcutta,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-34 N.	88-34 E.
Callao,	Peru,		S. Amer.	12-01 N.	76-53 W.
Calmar,	Smaland,	Sweden,	Europe	56-40 N.	16-26 E.
Cambodia,	Cambodia,	East India,	Asia	13-30 N.	105-00 E.
Cambray,	North,	France,	Europe	50-10 N.	3-18 E.
Cambridge,	Cambridgeshire,	England,	Europe	52-12 N.	0-00 E.
Cambridge,	Massachusetts,	United States,	N. Amer.	42-25 N.	71-05 W.
Cambeltown,	Argyleshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30 N.	5-40 W.
Canary, N. E.					
Point,	Canary Isles,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-13 N.	15-33 W.
Candia,	Candia Island,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe	35-18 N.	25-23 E.
Candy,	Ceylon,	Indian Ocean,	Asia	7-54 N.	79-00 E.
Canso Port,	Nova Scotia,		N. Amer.	45-20 N.	60-50 W.
Canterbury,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-18 N.	1-14 E.
Canton,	Canton,	China,	Asia	23-07 N.	113-07 E.
Cape Clear,		Irish Sea,	Europe	51-18 N.	9-50 W.
— Comorin,		East India,	Asia	7-56 N.	78-10 E.
— Finisterre,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42-51 N.	9-12 W.
— Florida,	East Florida,		N. Amer.	24-57 N.	80-30 W.
— of Good					
Hope,		Caffraria,	Africa	34-29 S.	18-28 E.
— Horn,	Terra del Fuego				
	Island,		S. Amer.	55-58 S.	67-21 W.
— Verd,		Negroland,	Africa	14-45 N.	17-28 W.
— St. Vincent,	Algarve,	Portugal,	Europe	37-02 N.	8-57 W.
Cardigan,	Cardiganshire,	Wales,	Europe	52-10 N.	4-38 W.
Carlescroom,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe	56-07 N.	15-31 E.
Carlisle,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-47 N.	2-53 W.
Carthagera,	Murcia,	Spain,	Europe	37-37 N.	1-08 W.
Carthagera,	Terra Firma,		S. Amer.	10-26 N.	75-42 W.
Casan,	Casan,	Russia,	Asia	55-43 N.	49-13 E.
Caspian Sea,	Russia,	Tartary,			
Cassel,	Hesse-Cassel,	Germany,	Europe	51-19 N.	9-34 E.
Castres,	Tarn,	France,	Europe	43-37 N.	2-19 E.
St. Catharine's					
Isle,		Atlant. Ocean,	S. Amer.	27-35 S.	49-12 W.
Cattegat,		between Swed. & Dem'k.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Cavan,	Cavan,	Ireland,	Europe	54-51 N.	7-18 W.
Cayenne,	Cayenne Isle,		S. Amer.	4-56 N.	52-10 W.
Cette,	Herault,	France,	Europe	43-23 N.	3-42 E.
Ceuta,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	35-04 N.	6-30 W.
Chalons,	Saone and Loire,	France,	Europe	46-46 N.	4-51 E.
Chandernagur,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-51 N.	88-34 E.
Charleston,	South Carolina,	United States,	N. Amer.	32-45 N.	80-39 W.
Charlton Isle,		Hudson's Bay,	N. Amer.	52-03 N.	79-00 W.
Chartres,	Eure and Loire,	France,	Europe	48-26 N.	1-33 E.
Cherbourg,	Channel,	France,	Europe	49-38 N.	1-33 W.
Chester,	Cheshire,	England,	Europe	53-15 N.	0-03 W.
Christmas Sound,	Terra del Fuego,		S. Amer.	55-21 N.	69-57 W.
St. Christopher's					
Isle,		Caribbean Sea,	N. Amer.	17-15 N.	62-38 W.
Cincinnati,	Ohio,	United States,	N. Amer.	39-06 N.	85-44 W.
Civita Vecchia,	Patr. di S. Petro,	Italy,	Europe	42-05 N.	11-51 E.
Clerke's Isles,		Atlantic Ocean,	S. Amer.	55-05 S.	34-37 W.
Clermont,	Puy de Dome,	France,	Europe	45-46 N.	3-10 E.
Colmar,	Upper Rhine,	France,	Europe	48-04 N.	7-27 E.
Cologne,	Roer,	France,	Europe	50-55 N.	6-55 E.
Constance,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	47-37 N.	9-12 E.
CONSTANTINO-	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41-01 N.	28-58 E.
PLE,					
COPENHAGEN,	Zealand Isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-40 N.	12-40 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30 N.	23-00 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Cork,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51-53 N.	8-23 W.
Coventry,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-25 N.	1-25 W.
Cowes,	Isle of Wight,	England,	Europe	50-46 N.	1-14 W.
Cracow,	Galicia,	Austrian Poland,	Europe	50-10 N.	19-55 E.
Cremsmunster,	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48-03 N.	14-12 E.
Cummin I.		N. Pacific Ocean,	Asia	31-40 N.	121-09 E.
Curacoa I.		West India,	America	11-56 N.	68-20 W.
Cusco,	Peru,		S. Amer.	12-25 S.	70-00 W.
D acca,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	23-30 N.	89-20 E.
Damascus,	Syria	Turkey,	Asia	33-15 N.	37-20 E.
Dantzic,	Polish	Prussia,	Europe	54-22 N.	18-38 E.
Dax,	Landes,	France,	Europe	43-42 N.	0-58 W.
Delft,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-06 N.	4-05 E.
Delhi,	Delhi,	East India,	Asia	29-00 N.	76-30 E.
Derbent,	Daghistan,	Persia,	Asia	41-41 N.	50-30 E.
Derby,	Derbyshire,	England,	Europe	52-58 N.	1-30 W.
Derry,	Ulster,	Ireland,	Europe	54-52 N.	7-40 W.
Dieppe,	Lower Seine,	France,	Europe	49-55 N.	0-59 E.
Dijon,	Côte d'Or,	France,	Europe	47-19 N.	4-57 E.
Dilbingen,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	48-30 N.	10-19 E.
Diu,	Guzerat,	East India,	Asia	21-37 N.	69-30 E.
Dol,	Isle and Vilaine,	France,	Europe	48-33 N.	1-41 W.
Domingo, St.	St. Domingo,	West India,	America	18-20 N.	70-10 W.
Dominica,	Windw. Islands,	West India,	America	15-18 N.	1-22 W.
Dover,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-07 N.	1-13 E.
DRESDEN,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-00 N.	13-36 E.
Dreux,	Eure and Loire,	France,	Europe	48-44 N.	1-16 E.
DUBLIN,	Leinster,	Ireland,	Europe	53-21 N.	6-01 W.
Dumbarton,	Dumbartonshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-44 N.	4-20 W.
Dumfries,	Dumfriesshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-08 N.	3-25 W.
Dunbar,	Haddington,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58 N.	2-25 W.
Dundee,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-26 N.	2-48 W.
Dungeness,	Kent,	England,	Europe	50-52 N.	1-04 E.
Dunkirk,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-02 N.	2-27 E.
Durham,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-48 N.	1-25 W.
E aoowe, I.		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-24 S.	174-25 W.
Easter Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	America	27-06 S.	109-41 W.
Eastern Ocean,	betw. the N. W. of N. Am. and N. E. of Asia,	N. Pacific Ocean.			
Edinburgh,	Edinburghshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-57 N.	3-07 W.
Edystone,	English Channel,	England,	Europe	50-08 N.	4-19 W.
Elba Isle,	Tuscan Sea,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe	42-42 N.	10-21 E.
Elbing,	Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54-15 N.	20-00 E.
Embsen,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe	53-25 N.	7-10 E.
Embrun,	Upper Alps,	France,	Europe	44-34 N.	6-34 E.
Enatum Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	20-10 S.	169-59 E.
English Channel,	between	Engl. & France,	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Ephesus,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38-01 N.	27-30 E.
Erramanago Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	18-46 S.	169-23 E.
Erzerum,	Turcomania,	Turkey,	Asia	39-56 N.	42-05 E.
Ethiopian Sea,	Coast of	Guinea,	Africa	Atlantic Ocean.	
Eustatius,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	N. Amer.	17-29 N.	63-05 W.
Evreux,	Eure,	France,	Europe	49-01 N.	1-13 E.
Exeter,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe	50-44 N.	3-29 W.
F alkirk,	Stirling,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58 N.	3-48 W.
Falmouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08 N.	4-57 W.
Fayal Town,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	38-32 N.	28-36 W.
Ferdinand Nar- onka,		Brasil,	S. Amer.	3-56 S.	32-43 W.
Ferrara,	Ferrarese,	Italy,	Europe	44-54 N.	11-41 E.
Ferro (Town)	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	27-47 N.	17-40 W.
Ferrol,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	43-30 N.	8-40 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	33-30 N.	6-00 W.
Florence,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43-46 N.	11-07 E.
Flores,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	39-34 N.	30-51 W.
St Flour,	Cantal,	France,	Europe	45-01 N.	3-10 E.
France (Isle of)		Indian Ocean,	Africa	10-09 S.	57-33 E.
Franckfort Main,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-55 N.	8-40 E.
Frauenburg,	Polish	Prussia,	Europe	54-22 N.	20-12 E.
Fuego Isle,	Cape Verd,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	14-56 N.	24-23 W.
Funchal,	Madeira,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	32-37 N.	17-01 W.
Furneaux Isle,		Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-11 S.	143-01 W.
G AP,	Upper Alps,	France,	Europe	44 33 N.	6-09 E.
Genes,	Savoy,	Italy,	Europe	44-25 N.	8-40 E.
Geneva,	Leman,	France,	Europe	46-12 N.	6-05 E.
GENOA,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	44-25 N.	8-15 E.
St. George's Isle,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	38-39 N.	27-55 W.
St. George's Town	Bermudas,	Atlantic Ocean,	N. Amer.	32-45 N.	63-30 W.
St. George's Fort,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
Ghent,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-03 N.	3-48 E.
Gibraltar,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	36-05 N.	5-17 W.
Glasgow,	Lanerkshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-51 N.	4-10 W.
Gloucester,	Gloucestershire,	England,	Europe	51-05 N.	2-16 W.
Goa,	Malabar,	East India,	Asia	15-31 N.	73-50 E.
Goat Isle,		Indian Ocean,	Asia	13-55 N.	120-07 E.
Gombroon,	Farsistan,	Persia,	Asia	27-30 N.	74-20 E.
Gomera Isle,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-05 N.	17-03 W.
Good Hope,	T. Cape T.	Caffraria,	Africa	33-55 S.	18-28 E.
Goree,		Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	14-40 N.	17-20 W.
Gottenburg,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	57-42 N.	11-43 E.
Gottingen,	Hanover,	Germany,	Europe	51-31 N.	9-58 E.
Granville,	Channel,	France,	Europe	48-50 N.	1-32 W.
Gratiosa,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	39-02 N.	27-53 W.
Gratz,	Stiria,	Germany,	Europe	47-04 N.	15-29 E.
Gravelines,	North,	France,	Europe	50-59 N.	2-13 E.
Greenock,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-52 N.	4-22 W.
Gryphiswald,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54-04 N.	13-43 E.
Guadaloupe,		Carib. Sea,	N. Amer.	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
Guam,	Ladronne Isles,	East India,	Asia	14-00 N.	140-30 E.
Gulf of Bothnia,	Coast of Sweden,		Europe		Baltic Sea.
— of California,	betw. Calif. & Mexico,		N. Amer.		Pacific Ocean.
— of Finland,	betw. Swed. & Russia,		Europe		Baltic Sea.
— of St. Lawrence,	Coast of New Scotland,		N. Amer.		Atlantic Ocean.
— of Mexico,	Coast of Mexico,		N. Amer.		Atlantic Ocean.
— of Ormus,	betw. Persia & Arabia,		Asia		Indian Ocean.
— of Persia,	betw. Persia & Arabia,		Asia		Indian Ocean.
— of Venice,	betw. Italy & Turkey,		Europe		Mediterranean Sea.
H Aerlem,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-20 N.	4-42 E.
Hague,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-04 N.	4-22 E.
Halifax,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-45 N.	1-52 W.
HALIFAX,	Nova Scotia,		N. Amer.	44-40 N.	63-15 W.
Hamburgh,	Holstein,	Germany,	Europe	53-34 N.	9-55 E.
Hanover,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-22 N.	10-3 E.
Hartford,	Connecticut,	United States,	N. Amer.	41-44 N.	72-50 W.
Hastings,	Sussex,	England,	Europe	50-52 N.	0-40 E.
Havannah,		Cuba Island,	N. Amer.	23-11 N.	82-13 W.
Havre de Grace,	Lower Seine,	France,	Europe	49-29 N.	1-10 E.
St. Helena,	South	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	15-55 S.	5-44 W.
Hellespont,	Med. & Bl. Sea,	Europe and	Asia		
Hereford,	Herefordshire,	England,	Europe	52-06 N.	2-38 W.
Hernsand,	W. Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	62-38 N.	17-58 E.
Hervey's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-17 S.	158-43 W.
Hoai-Nghan,	Kian-Nan,	China,	Asia	33-34 N.	118-54 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
La Hogue Cape,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-44 N.	1-51 W.
Hood's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	9-26 S.	138-47 W.
Hoogstraten,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-24 N.	4-52 E.
Howe's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-46 S.	154-01 W.
Huaheine Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-44 S.	151-01 W.
Hudson's Bay,	Coast of	Labrador,	N. Amer.	N. Atlantic Ocean.	
Hull,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-45 N.	0-12 W.
J aneiro Rio,		Brasil,	S. Amer.	22-54 S.	42-38 W.
Jassy,	Moldavia,	Turkey,	Europe	47-08 N.	27-34 E.
Java Head,	Java Isle,	East India,	Asia	6-49 S.	106-55 E.
Jeddo,	Japan Isle,	East India,	Asia	36-20 N.	139-00 E.
Jerusalem,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	31-46 N.	35-25 E.
Immer Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-10 S.	169-51 E.
Indian Ocean,		Coast of India,	Asia		
Ingolstadt,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-45 N.	11-27 E.
Inverness,	Invernesshire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-33 N.	4-02 W.
St. John's To.	Antigua,	Leeward Isles,	N. Amer.	17-04 N.	62-04 E.
St. John's To.	Newfoundland,	North America	47-32 N.	52-21 W.	
St. Joseph's,	California,	Mexico,	N. Amer.	23-03 N.	109-37 W.
Irish Sea, between	Great Britain and	Ireland,	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
Irraname Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-31 S.	170-26 E.
ISPAHAN,	Irac Agem,	Persia,	Asia	32-25 N.	52-55 E.
Ivica Isle,	Mediterr. Sea,	Italy,	Europe	38-50 N.	1-40 E.
Isthmus of Corinth,	joins the	Morea to Greece,	Europe.		
— of Malacca,	joins	Malacca to Farther India,	Asia.		
— of Panamá,	joins	North and South America.			
— of Suez,	joins	Africa to Asia.			
Islamabad,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-20 N.	91-50 E.
Judda,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	21-29 N.	49-27 E.
Juthria,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
K elso,	Roxboroughs.	Scotland,	Europe	55-38 N.	2-12 W.
Kilmarnock,	Ayrshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-38 N.	0-30 W.
KINGSTON,	Jamaica,	West India,	America	17-57 N.	76-38 W.
Kinsale,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51-32 N.	8-20 W.
Kiow,	Ukraine,	Russia,	Europe	50-30 N.	31-12 E.
Kola,	Lapland,	Russia,	Europe	68-52 N.	33-13 E.
Konigsberg,	Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54-43 N.	21-35 E.
L aguna,	Teneriffe,	Canaries,	A. Ocean	28-28 N.	16-13 W.
Lahor,	Lahor	East India,	Asia	32-40 N.	75-30 E.
Lancaster,	Lancashire	England,	Europe	54-05 N.	2-55 E.
Lancaster,	Pennsylvania,	U. States,	N. Amer.	40-00 N.	76-10 W.
Landou,	Lower Rhine,	France,	Europe	49-11 N.	8-02 E.
Landscreon,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe	55-52 N.	12-51 E.
Lausanne,	Canton of Vaud,	Switzerland,	Europe	46-31 N.	6-50 E.
Leeds,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-48 N.	1-20 W.
Leicester,	Leicestershire,	England,	Europe	52-38 N.	1-03 W.
Leipsic,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-19 N.	12-25 E.
Leith,	Edinburghshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58 N.	3-00 W.
Leper's Island,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-23 S.	168-03 E.
Leskard,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-26 N.	4-36 W.
Lesparre,	Gironde,	France,	Europe	45-18 N.	0-52 W.
Lexington,	Kentucky,	U. States,	N. Amer.	38-20 N.	85-10 W.
Leyden,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-10 N.	4-32 E.
Liege,	Ourte,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-37 N.	5-40 E.
Lima,	Peru,	South America	12-01 S.	76-44 W.	
Limerick,	Limerickshire,	Ireland,	Europe	52-35 N.	8-48 W.
Limoges,	Upper Vienne,	France,	Europe	45-49 N.	1-20 E.
Lincoln,	Lincolnshire,	England,	Europe	53-15 N.	0-27 W.
Linlithgow,	Linlithgowshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-56 N.	3-30 W.
Lintz,	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	41-16 N.	13-57 E.
Lisbon,	Estremadura,	Portugal,	Europe	38-42 N.	9-04 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Lisle,	North,	France,	Europe	50-37 N.	3-09 E.
Litchfield,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe	52-43 N.	1-04 W.
Liverpool,	Lancashire,	England,	Europe	53-23 N.	2-54 W.
Lizard Point,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	49-57 N.	5-10 W.
LONDON,	Middlesex,	England,	Europe	51-31 N.	1st Merid.
Londonderry,	Londonderry,	Ireland,	Europe	50-00 N.	7-40 W.
Loretto,	Pope's Territory,	Italy,	Europe	43-15 N.	14-15 E.
Louisbourg,	C. Breton Isle,	North America	45-53 N.	59-48 W.	
Louvain,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-53 N.	4-49 E.
Louveau,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	12-42 N.	100-56 E.
Lubec,	Holstein,	Germany,	Europe	54-00 N.	11-40 E.
St. Lucia Isle,	Windward Isles,	West Indies,	N. Amer.	13-24 N.	60-46 W.
Lunden,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	55-41 N.	13-26 E.
Luneville,	Meurthe,	France,	Europe	48-35 N.	6-35 E.
Luxemburg,	Forests,	Netherlands,	Europe	49-37 N.	6-16 E.
Lyons,	Rhone & Loire,	France,	Europe	45-45 N.	4-54 E.
M acao,	Canton,	China,	Asia	22-12 N.	113-51 E.
Macassar,	Celebes Isle,	East India,	Asia	05-09 S.	119-53 E.
Madeira, I. Fun- chal,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	32-57 N.	17-01 W.	
Madras,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
MADRID,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	40-25 N.	3-20 E.
Magdalena Isl.	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	10-25 S.	138-44 W.	
Mahon, Fort,	Minorca,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe	39-50 N.	3-53 E.
Majorca Isle,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe	39-35 N.	2-34 E.	
Malacca,	Malacca,	East India,	Asia	02-12 N.	102-10 E.
Malines,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-01 N.	4-33 E.
Mallicola Isles,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-15 N.	167-44 E.	
St. Maloes,	Morbihan,	France,	Europe	48-38 N.	1-56 W.
Malta Isle,	Mediterranean Sea,	Africa	35-54 N.	14-33 E.	
Manchester,	Lancashire,	England,	Europe	53-30 N.	2-80 W.
Manilla,	Luconia, Philip. Isles,	East India,	Asia	14-36 N.	120-58 E.
MANTUA,	Mantua,	Italy,	Europe	45-20 N.	10-47 E.
Mariegalande Isle,	Atlantic Ocean,	S. Amer.	15-55 N.	61-06 W.	
Marseilles,	Mouths of the Rhone,	France,	Europe	43-17 N.	5-27 E.
St. Martha,	St. Martha,	Terra Firma,	America	11-26 N.	75-59 W.
St. Martin's Isle,	Carribb. Islands,	West India,	America	18-04 N.	62-57 W.
Martinico Isle,	Carribean Island,	West India,	America	14-44 N.	61-05 W.
St. Mary's Isle,	Scilly Isles,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	49-57 N.	6-38 W.
St. Mary's To.	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	36-56 N.	25-06 W.
Maskelyne Isle,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-32 S.	168-04 E.	
Mauritius,	Indian Ocean,	Africa	20-09 S.	57-34 E.	
Maurua Isle,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-25 S.	152-37 E.	
Mayence,	Mont Tonnere,	France,	Europe	49-54 N.	8-25 E.
Mayo Isle,	Cape Verd,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	15-10 N.	23-00 W.
Meaux,	Seine & Marne,	France,	Europe	48-57 N.	2-57 E.
Mecca,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	21-45 N.	41-00 E.
Medina,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	25-00 N.	39-33 E.
Mequinez,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34-30 N.	6-00 E.
Mergui,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	12-12 N.	98-13 E.
MESSINA,	Sicily Island,	Italy,	Europe	38-30 N.	15-40 E.
Mexico,	Mexico,	N. Amer.	19-54 N.	100-00 W.	
St Michael's Isle,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	37-47 N.	25-37 W.
Middleburg Isle,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-20 S.	174-29 W.	
MILAN,	Milanese,	Italy,	Europe	45-28 N.	9-16 E.
Milford Haven,	Pembrokeshire,	Wales,	Europe	51-43 N.	5-15 W.
Miatea Isles,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-52 S.	48-01 W.	
Mocha,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	13-40 N.	43-50 E.
MODENA,	Modena,	Italy,	Europe	44-34 N.	11-17 E.
Montague Isle,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-26 S.	168-36 E.	

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Montpelier,	Herault,	France,	Europe	43-36 N.	3-37 E.
Montreal,	Canada,		N. Amer.	45-35 N.	73-11 W.
Montrose,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-34 N.	0-20 W.
Montserrat Isl.	Caribbean Isles,	West India,	America	16-47 N.	62-12 W.
MOROCCO,	Morocco,	Barbary,	Africa	30-32 N.	6-10 W.
Moscow,	Moscow,	Russia,	Europe	55-45 N.	37-38 E.
Munich,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-09 N.	11-35 E.
Munster,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe	52-00 N.	7-16 E.

N Agasachi,	Japan,	N. Pacific Ocean,	Asia	32 32 N.	182-51 E.
Namur,	Sambre and Meuse.	Netherlands,	Europe	50-28 N.	4-49 E.
Nanci,	Meurthe,	France,	Europe	48-41 N.	6-10 E.
Nanking,	Kiangnan,	China,	Asia	32-04 N.	118-52 E.
Nantes,	Lower Loire,	France,	Europe	47-13 N.	1-28 W.
Naples,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe	40-50 N.	14-18 E.
Narva,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	59-00 N.	27-35 E.
Newcastle,	Northumberland	England,	Europe	55-03 N.	1-24 W.
Newport,	Rhode Island,	United States,	N. Amer.	41-35 N.	71-06 W.
New York,	New York,	United States,	N. Amer.	40-40 N.	74-00 W.
Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	43-41 N.	7-22 E.
St. Nicholas,					
Mole,	Hispaniola,	West India,	America	19-49 N.	73-24 W.
Nieuport,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-07 N.	2-50 E.
Ningpo,	Sheskiang,	China,	Asia	29-57 N.	120-23 E.
Norfolk Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	29-01 S.	168-15 E.
North Cape,	Wardhus,	Lapland,	Europe	71-10 N.	26-02 E.
Northampton,	Northamptonsh.	England,	Europe	52-15 N.	0-55 W.
Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-40 N.	1-25 E.
Nottingham,	Nottinghamshire	England,	Europe	53-00 N.	1-06 W.
Nuremberg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-27 N.	11-12 E.

O Chotsk,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	59-20 N.	143-17 E.
Ohevahoa Isl.		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	9-40 S.	138-50 W.
Ohitahoo Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	9-55 S.	139-01 W.
Oleron Isle,	Lower Charente,	France,	Europe	46-02 N.	1-20 W.
Olinde,	Brasil,		S. Amer.	8-13 S.	35-00 W.
Olmütz,	Moravia,	Bohemia,	Europe	49-30 N.	16-45 E.
St. Omer's,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-44 N.	2-19 E.
Onateayo Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	9-58 S.	138-40 W.
Oporto,	Douro,	Portugal,	Europe	41-10 N.	8-22 W.
Oran,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30 N.	0-05 E.
Orenburg,	Ufa,	Russia,	Asia	51-46 N.	55-14 E.
L'Orient (Port)	Morbihan,	France,	Europe	47-45 N.	3-20 W.
Orleans,	Loiret,	France,	Europe	47-54 N.	1-59 E.
Orleans (New)	Louisiana,	United States,	N. Amer.	29-57 N.	89-53 W.
Ormus,	Ormicos Isle,	Persia,	Asia	26-50 N.	57-00 E.
Orotava,	Teneriffe,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-23 N.	16-19 W.
Orsk,	Ufa,	Russia,	Asia	51-12 N.	58-37 E.
Osnaburg Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-52 S.	148-01 E.
Ostend,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13 N.	3-00 W.
Oxford Observa- tory,	Oxfordshire,	England,	Europe	51-45 N.	1-10 W.

P acific Ocean,	between Asia and America.				
Padua,	Paduano,	Italy,	Europe	45-22 N.	12-00 E.
Paisley,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	4-08 W.
PALERMO,	Sicily Isle,	Italy,	Europe	38-30 N.	13-43 E.
Palliser's Isles,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-38 S.	146-25 W.
Palma Isle,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-36 N.	17-45 W.
Palmerston's Isl.		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	18-00 S.	162-52 W.
Palmyra,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-00 N.	39-00 E.
Panama,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	S. Amer.	8-47 N.	80-16 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.	E.
Paoom Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-30 S.	168-33	E.
PARIS Observa- tory,	Isle of France,	France,	Europe	48-50 N.	2-25	E.
Parma,	Parmesan,	Italy,	Europe	44-45 N.	10-51	E.
Patna,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	25-45 N.	83-00	E.
Patuxford,	Iceland,	N. Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	65-35 N.	14-05	W.
Pau,	Lower Pyrenees	France,	Europe	45-15 N.	0-04	W.
St. Paul's Isle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa	37-51 S.	77-53	E.
Pegu,	Pegu,	East India,	Asia	17-00 N.	97-00	E.
Peking,	Peche-lee,	China,	Asia	39-54 N.	116-29	E.
Pembroke,	Pembrokeshire,	Wales,	Europe	51-45 N.	4-50	W.
PENSACOLA,	West Florida,		N. Amer.	30-22 N.	87-20	W.
Penzance,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08 N.	6-00	W.
Perigueux,	Dordogne,	France,	Europe	45-11 N.	0 48	E.
Perinaldi,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	43-53 N.	7-45	E.
Perth,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-22 N.	3-12	W.
Perth-amboy,	New York	United States,	N. Amer.	40-30 N.	74-20	W.
PETERSBURG,	Ingria,	Russia,	Europe	59-56 N.	30-24	E.
St. Peter's Isle,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	America	46-46 N.	56-12	W.
St. Peter's Fort,	Martinico,	West India,	N. Amer.	14-44 N.	61-16	W.
Petropawloskoi,	Kamtschatka,	Russia,	Asia	53-01 N.	158-40	E.
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,	United States,	N. Amer.	39-56 N.	75-09	W.
St. Philip's Fort,	Minorca,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe	39-50 N.	3-53	E.
Pickersgill Isle,	South	Atlantic Ocean,	America	54-42 S.	36-53	W.
Pico,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	38-28 N.	28-21	W.
Pines, Isle of,	N. Caledonia,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	22-38 S.	167-43	E.
Pisa,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43-43 N.	10-17	E.
Pittsburg,	Pennsylvania,	United States,	N. Amer.	40-31 N.	80-12	W.
Placentia,	Newfoundland Isle,		N. Amer.	47-26 N.	55-00	W.
Plymouth,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe	50-22 N.	4-10	W.
Plymouth,	New England,		N. Amer.	41-48 N.	70-25	W.
Pollingen,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	47-48 N.	10-48	E.
Pondicherry,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	11-41 N.	79-57	E.
Ponoi,	Lapland,	Russia,	Europe	67-06 N.	30-28	E.
Port Royal,	Jamaica,	West India,	America	18-00 N.	76-40	W.
Port Royal,	Martinico,	West India,	America	14-35 N.	61-04	W.
Porto Bello,	Terra Firma,		S. Amer.	9-33 N.	79-45	W.
Porto Santo I.	Madeira,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	32-51 N.	16-20	W.
Portland Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	39-25 S.	178-17	E.
Portland Isle,	North	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	63-22 N.	18-49	W.
Portsmouth Town,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-47 N.	1-01	W.
— Academy,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-48 N.	1-01	W.
Portsmouth,	New England,		N. Amer.	53-10 N.	70-20	W.
Potosi,	Peru,		S. Amer.	21-00 S.	77-00	W.
Prague,		Bohemia,	Europe	50-04 N.	14-50	E.
Presburg,	Upper	Hungary,	Europe	48-20 N.	17-30	W.
Preston,	Lancashire,	England,	Europe	53-45 N.	2-50	W.
Prince of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,		N. Amer.	58-47 N.	94-02	W.
Providence,	New England,		N. Amer.	41-50 N.	71-21	W.
Pulo Condor I.	Indian Ocean,	East Indies,	Asia	28-40 N.	107-25	E.
Pulo Timor I.	Gulf of Siam,	East India,	Asia	3-00 N.	104-30	E.
Pylestaart Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	22-23 S.	175-26	W.
QUEBEC,	Canada,		N. Amer.	46-55 N.	69-48	W.
Queen Char- lotte's Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	10-11 S.	164-35	E.
St. Quintin,	North,	France,	Europe	49-50 N.	3-22	E.
Quito,	Peru,		S. Amer.	0-13 S.	77-50	W.
R Agusa,	Dalmatia,	Venice,	Europe	42-45 N.	18-25	E.
Ramhead,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-18 N.	4-15	W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries. or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Ratisbon,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-56 N.	12-05 E.
Recif,	Brasil,		S. Amer.	8-10 S.	35-30 W.
Rennes,	Isle and Vilaine,	France,	Europe	48-06 N.	1-36 W.
Resolution Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-23 S.	141-40 W.
Rhé Isle,	Lower Charente,	France,	Europe	46-14 N.	1-20 W.
Rheims,	Marne,	France,	Europe	49-14 N.	4-07 E.
Rhodes,	Rhodes Island,	Levant Sea,	Asia	36-20 N.	28-00 E.
Richmond,	Virginia,	United States,	N. Amer.	37-30 N.	77-30 W.
Riga,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	56-55 N.	24-00 E.
Rimini,	Romagna,	Italy,	Europe	44-03 N.	12-39 E.
Rochelle,	Lower Charente,	France,	Europe	46-09 N.	1-04 W.
Rochfort,	Lower Charente,	France,	Europe	46-02 N.	0-53 W.
Rock of Lisbon,	Mouth of Tagus River,	Portugal,	Europe	38-45 N.	9-30 W.
Rodez,	Aveiron,	France,	Europe	44-21 N.	2-39 E.
Rodrigues Isle,		South Indian Ocean,	Africa	10-40 N.	63-15 E.
Rome,	Pope's Territory,	Italy,	Europe	41-53 N.	12-34 E.
Rotterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-56 N.	4-33 E.
Rotterdam Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	20-16 N.	174-24 W.
Rouen,	Lower Seine,	France,	Europe	49-26 N.	1-00 W.
Saba Isle,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	America	17-39 N.	63-12 W.
Sagan,	Silesia,	Germany,	Europe	51-42 N.	15-27 E.
St. Augustin,	East Florida,		N. Amer.	29-45 N.	81-12 W.
— Domingo,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	America	18-20 N.	70-00 W.
— George's Channel,		between England and Ire- land,	Atlantic Ocean, Europe.		
— Jago,	Chili,		S. Amer.	34-00 S.	77-00 W.
— Salvador,	Brasil,		S. Amer.	11-58 S.	38-00 W.
Salisbury,	Wiltshire,	England,	Europe	51-00 N.	1-45 W.
Sall Isle,		North Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	16-38 N.	22-51 W.
Salonichi,	Macedonia,	Turkey,	Europe	40-41 N.	23-13 E.
Salvage Isles,		North Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	30-00 N.	15-49 W.
Samana,	Hispaniola,	West India,	America	19-15 N.	69-11 W.
Samarcand,	Usbec,	Tartary,	Asia	40-40 N.	69-00 E.
Sandwich Isles,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-41 S.	168-38 E.
Santa Cruz,	Teneriffé,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-27 N.	16-11 W.
Santa Fé,	New Mexico,		N. Amer.	36-00 N.	105-00 W.
Saunder's Isles,	South Georgia,	S. Atlant. Ocean,	S. Amer.	58-00 S.	26-53 W.
Savage Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-02 S.	169-25 W.
Savannah,	Georgia,	United States,	N. Amer.	31-55 N.	80-20 W.
Sayd, or Thebes,		Upper Egypt,	Africa	27-00 N.	32-20 E.
Scarborough,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	54-18 N.	0-10 W.
Schwetzingen,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-23 N.	8-45 E.
Scone,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-24 N.	3-10 W.
Sea of Asoph,	Little Tartary,	Europe and Asia.			
— Marmora,		Turkey in Europe and Asia,			Black Sea.
— Ochotsk,		between Siberia & Kamtschatka,	Asia,		N. Pacific Ocean.
— Yellow,		between Eastern Tartary, China, and Corea,			N. Pacific Ocean.
Sedan,	Ardenne,	France,	Europe	49-44 N.	5-02 E.
Senegal,		Negroland,	Africa	15-53 N.	16-26 W.
Seville,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	37-15 N.	6-05 W.
Sheerness,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-25 N.	0-50 E.
Shepherd's Isles,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-58 S.	168-47 E.
Shield's (South)	Durham,	England,	Europe	55-02 N.	1-15 E.
Shrewsbury,	Shropshire,	England,	Europe	52-43 N.	2-46 W.
Siam,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
Sidon,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia	33-33 N.	36-15 E.
Si-gham-fu,	Shensi,	China,	Asia	34-16 N.	108-48 E.
Sisteron,	Lower Alps,	France,	Europe	44-11 N.	6-01 W.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38-28 N.	27-24 E.
Smbavera Isles,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	N. Amer.	18-38 N.	63-32 W.
Soolo Isle,	Philip Isles,	East India,	Asia	5-57 N.	121-20 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Sound,	between Denmark and Sweden,		Europe	Baltic Sea.	
Southampton,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-55 N.	1-25 W.
Spa,	Ourte,	France,	Europe	50-30 N.	5-40 E.
Stafford,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe	52-50 N.	2-00 W.
Stirling,	Stirlingshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-10 N.	3-50 W.
Stockholm,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-20 N.	18-08 E.
Straits of Babelmandel, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.					
Straits of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.					
Straits of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.					
Straits of Magellan, between Terra del Fuego and Patagonia, South America.					
Straits of Le Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.					
Straits of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.					
Straits of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf.					
Straits of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia.					
Straits of Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia.					
Stralsund,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54-23 N.	13-22 E.
Strasburgh,	Lower Rhine,	France,	Europe	48-34 N.	7-46 E.
Straumness,	Iceland,	N. Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	65-39 N.	24-24 W.
Stutgard,	Suabia,	Wirtemberg,	Europe	48-50 N.	9-10 E.
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa	29-50 N.	33-27 E.
Sultz,	Upper Rhine,	France,	Europe	47-53 N.	7-09 W.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-55 N.	1-10 W.
Surat,	Guzerat,	East India,	Asia	21-10 N.	72-27 E.
Surinam,	Surinam,		S. Amer.	6-00 N.	55-30 W.
Syracuse,	Sicily Isle,	Italy,	Europe	36-58 N.	5-05 E.
T able Island,	New Hebrides,	S. Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-38 S.	167-12 E.
Talavera,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	39-41 N.	4-01 W.
Tanjore,	Tanjore,	East India,	Asia	11-27 N.	79-07 E.
Tanna Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-32 S.	169-46 E.
Taoukaa Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	14-30 S.	145-04 W.
Tauris,	Aderbeitzan,	Persia,	Asia	38-20 N.	46-30 E.
Teflis,	Georgia,	Persia,	Asia	43-30 N.	47-00 E.
Temontengis,	Soloo,	East India,	Asia	5-57 N.	120-58 E.
Teneriffe Peak,	Canaries,	Atlantic Ocean,	Africa	28-12 N.	16-24 W.
Tercera Isle,	Azores,	Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	38-45 N.	27-01 W.
Tetuan,	Pez,	Barbary,	Africa	35-40 N.	5-18 W.
St. Thomas's Isl.	Virgin Isles,	West India,	America	18-21 N.	64-26 W.
Thorn,	Prussia,		Europe	52-56 N.	19-00 W.
Timor, S. W.					
Point,		East India,	Asia	10-23 S.	124-04 E.
Timorland, S.					
Point,		East India,	Asia	8-15 S.	131-59 E.
Tobolsk,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	58-12 N.	68-17 E.
Toledo,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	39-50 N.	3-25 E.
Tomsk,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	56-29 N.	85-04 E.
Tonga Taboo Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-09 S.	174-41 W.
Tornea,	Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	65-50 N.	24-17 E.
Toulon,	Var,	France,	Europe	43-07 N.	6-01 E.
Toulouse,	Upper Garonne,	France,	Europe	43-35 N.	1-21 E.
Trapesond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	41-50 N.	40-30 E.
Trent,	Trent,	Germany,	Europe	46-05 N.	11-02 E.
Tripoli,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa	32-53 N.	13-12 E.
Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	34-30 N.	36-15 E.
Tunis,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-47 N.	10-00 E.
Turin,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	45-05 N.	7-45 E.
Turtle Isle,		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-48 S.	178-02 W.
Tyre,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	32-32 N.	36-00 E.
Tyrnaw,	Trentschin,	Hungary,	Europe	48-23 N.	17-38 E.

Ulietea Isle, South Pacific Ocean, Asia 16-45 S. 151 26 W.
 Ulm, Suabia, Germany, Europe 48-25 N. 10-12 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries, or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Upsal,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-51 N.	17-43 E.
Uraniberg,	Huen Isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-54 N.	12-57 E.
Ushant Isle,	Finisterre,	France,	Europe	48-28 N.	4-59 W.
Utretcht,	Utrecht,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-07 N.	5-00 E.
Venice,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe	45-26 N.	11-59 E.
Vera Cruz,	Mexico,		N. Amer.	19-12 N.	97-25 W.
Verona,	Veronese,	Italy,	Europe	45-26 N.	11-23 E.
Versailles,	Seine and Oise,	France,	Europe	48-48 N.	2-12 E.
VIENNA (Ob)	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48-12 N.	16-22 E.
Vigo,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42-14 N.	8-23 W.
Vintimiglia,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	43-53 N.	7-42 E.
Virgin Gorda,	Virgin Isles,	West India,	America	18-18 N.	63-59 W.
W akefield,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-41 N.	1-28 W.
Pr. Wales					
Fort,	New N. Wales,		N. Amer.	53-47 N.	94-02 W.
Wardhus,		Norwegian Lapland,	Europe	70-22 N.	31-11 E.
Warsaw,	Massovia,	Pr. Poland,	Europe	52-14 N.	21-05 E.
Warwick,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-18 N.	1-32 W.
WASHINGTON,	Dist. of Columbia,	United States,	N. Amer.	38-53 N.	77-45 W.
Waterford,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	52-12 N.	7-16 W.
Wells,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-12 N.	2-40 W.
Westman Isles,		North Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	63-20 N.	20-22 W.
Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-38 N.	3-36 W.
Whitsuntide I.		South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-44 S.	168-25 E.
Williamsburg,	Virginia,		N. Amer.	37-12 N.	76-48 W.
Willes's Isles,	South Georgia,	Atlantic Ocean,	America	54-00 S.	38-24 W.
Wilna,	Lithuania,	Poland,	Europe	54-41 N.	25-32 E.
Winchester,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	51-06 N.	1-15 W.
Wittenburg,	Upper Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-49 N.	12-46 E.
Wologda,	Wologda,	Russia,	Europe	59-19 N.	41-50 E.
Worms,	Mont Tonnerre,	France,	Europe	49-38 N.	8-05 E.
Worcester,	Worcestershire,	England,	Europe	52-09 N.	2-00 W.
Woslak,		Russia,	Europe	61-15 N.	42-20 E.
Wurtzburg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-46 N.	10-18 E.
Y akutsk,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	62-01 N.	129-52 E.
Yarmouth,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-45 N.	1-48 E.
York,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-59 N.	1-06 W.
Yorkminster,	Terra del Fuego,		S. Amer.	55-26 N.	70-03 W.
Greenwich Observ.	Kent, England,	Europe, 51° 28' 40" N. 0° 5' 37" E. of St. Paul's,			
London.					

A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS;

ALSO,

The Era, the Country, and Writings of learned Men :

THE WHOLE

COMPREHENDING IN ONE VIEW, THE ANALYSIS OR OUTLINES OF GENERAL
HISTORY, FROM THE CREATION TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Bef. Christ.

4004 THE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve.

4003 The birth of Cain, the first who was born of a woman,

3017 Enoch, for his piety, is translated to Heaven.

2348 The whole world is destroyed by a deluge, which continued 377 days.

2247 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's posterity, upon which God miraculously confounds their language, and thus disperses them into different nations.

About the same time, Noah is, with great probability, supposed to have parted from his rebellious offspring, and to have led a colony of some of the more tractable into the East, and there, either he, or one of his successors, to have founded the ancient Chinese monarchy.

2234 The celestial observations are begun at Babylon, the city which first gave birth to learning and the sciences.

2188 Misraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which lasted 1663 years, down to its conquest by Cambyzes, in 525 before Christ.

2059 Ninus, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria, which lasted above 1000 years, and out of its ruins were formed the Assyrians of Babylon, those of Nineveh, and the kingdom of the Medes.

1921 The covenant of God made with Abram, when he leaves Haran to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years of sojourning.

1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are destroyed for their wickedness, by fire from Heaven.

1856 The kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.

1822 Memnon, the Egyptian, invents letters.

1715 Prometheus first struck fire from flints.

1635 Joseph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Genesis, containing a period of 2369 years.

1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God first high-priest of the Israelites.

1571 Moses, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharoah's daughter, who educates him in all the learning of the Egyptians.

1556 Cecrops brings a colony of Saïtes from Egypt into Attica, and founds the kingdom of Athens, in Greece.

1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and founds the kingdom of Troy.

1493 Cadmus carried the Phœnician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.

- 1491 Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Israelites, besides children; which completed the 430 years of sojourning. They miraculously pass through the Red Sea, and come to the Desert of Sinai, where Moses receives from God, and delivers to the people, the Ten Commandments, and the other Laws, and sets up the Tabernacle, and in it the Ark of the Covenant.
- 1485 The first ship that appeared in Greece was brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes, and brought with him his fifty daughters.
- 1453 The first Olympic games celebrated at Olympia in Greece.
- 1452 The Pentateuch, or five books of Moses, are written in the land of Moab, where he died in the year following, aged 120.
- 1451 The Israelites, after sojourning in the Wilderness forty years, are led under Joshua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themselves, after having subdued the natives: and the period of the sabbatical year commences.
- 1406 Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods.
- 1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which in 1193, gave rise to the Trojan war and siege of Troy by the Greeks, which continued ten years, when that city was taken and burnt.
- 1048 David is sole king of Israel.
- 1004 The temple is solemnly dedicated by Solomon.
- 896 Elijah, the prophet, is translated to Heaven.
- 894 Money first made of gold and silver at Argos.
- 869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by queen Dido.
- 814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.
- 776 The first Olympiad begins.
- 753 Æra of the building of Rome, in Italy, by Romulus, first king of the Romans.
- 720 Samaria taken, after three year's siege, and the kingdom of Israel finished, by Salmanasar, king of Assyria, who carried the ten tribes into captivity. The first eclipse of the moon on record.
- 658 Byzantium (now Constantinople) built by a colony of Athenians.
- 604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, some Phœnicians sailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.
- 600 Thales, of Miletus, travels into Egypt, consults the priests of Memphis, acquires the knowledge of geometry, astronomy, and philosophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipses, gives general notions of the universe, and maintains that one supreme Intelligence regulates all its motions.
- Maps, spheres, and sun-dials invented by Anaximander, the scholar of Thales.
- 597 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, carried away captive by Nebuchadnezzar to Babylon.
- 587 The city of Jerusalem taken, after a siege of 18 months.
- 562 The first comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable scaffold.
- 559 Cyrus, the first king of Persia.
- 538 The kingdom of Babylon finished, that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, issues an edict for the return of the Jews.
- 534 The first tragedy was acted at Athens, on a waggon, by Thespis.
- 526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library first founded.
- 515 The second temple at Jerusalem is finished under Darius.
- 509 Tarquin, the seventh, and last king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two consuls, and other republican magistrates, till the battle of Pharsalia, being a space of 461 years.
- 504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occasion to the Persian invasion of Greece.
- 486 Æschylus, the Greek poet, first gains the prize of tragedy.
- 481 Xerxes the Great, king of Persia, begins his expedition against Greece.
- 458 Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captive Jews, and the vessels of gold and silver, &c. being seventy weeks of years, or 490 years, before the crucifixion of our Saviour.
- 454 The Romans send to Athens for Solon's laws.
- 451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the Twelve Tables compiled and ratified.
- 430 The history of the Old Testament finishes about this time. Malachi, the last of the prophets.
- 401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks under Xenophon.

- 400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy among the Greeks, believes the immortality of the soul, and a state of rewards and punishments; for which, and other sublime doctrines, he is put to death by the Athenians, who soon after repent, and erect to his memory a statue of brass.
- 331 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius king of Persia and various nations of Asia.
- 323 Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms.
- 285 Dionysius of Alexandria began his astronomical æra on Monday, June 26, being the first who found the exact solar year to consist of 365 days 5 hours and 49 minutes.
- 284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs seventy-two interpreters to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.
- 269 The first coining of silver at Rome.
- 264 The first Punic war begins, and continues 23 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marble, called the Parian Chronicle, composed.
- 260 The Romans first apply themselves to naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at sea.
- 237 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, causes his son Hannibal, at nine years old, to swear eternal enmity to the Romans.
- 218 The second Punic war begins, and continues 17 years. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles, but does not improve his victories by the storming of Rome.
- 190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and, from the spoils of Antiochus, brings the Asiatic luxury first to Rome.
- 168 Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.
- 167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.
- 163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 126 years.
- 146 Carthage the rival of Rome, razed to the ground by the Romans.
- 135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.
- 52 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.
- 47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.
- The Alexandrian library, consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.
- 45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself.
- The solar year introduced by Cæsar.
- 44 Cæsar, the greatest of the Roman conquerors, after having fought fifty pitched battles, and slain 1,192,000 men, and overturned the liberties of his country, is killed in the senate-house.
- 31 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæsar.
- 30 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by Octavius; upon which Antony and Cleopatra put themselves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.
- 27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Cæsar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman emperor.
- 8 Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.
- 1 The Temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace; and JESUS CHRIST is supposed to have been born in September, or on Monday, December 25.

A. C.

- 12 CHRIST hears the doctors in the temple, and asks them questions.
- 27 ——— is baptized in the wilderness by John.
- 33 ——— is crucified on Friday, April 3, at 3 o'clock, P. M.
- His resurrection on Sunday, April 5: his ascension, Thursday, May 14.
- 36 St. Paul converted.
- 39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel.
- Pontius Pilate kills himself.
- 40 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to the followers of Christ.
- 43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.
- 44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.
- 49 London is founded by the Romans: 368, surrounded by ditto with a wall, some parts of which are still observable.

- 51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried in chains to Rome.
- 52 The council of the Apostles at Jerusalem.
- 55 St. Luke writes his Gospel.
- 59 The emperor Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.
- 61 Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans, but is conquered soon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.
- 62 St. Paul sent in bonds to Rome; writes his Epistles between 51 and 66.
- 63 The acts of the Apostles written.
Christianity is supposed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or some of his disciples, about this time.
- 64 Rome set on fire, and burned for six days; upon which began, under Nero, the first persecution against the Christians.
- 70 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
- 76 Whilst the factious Jews are destroying one another with mutual fury, Titus, the Roman general, takes Jerusalem, which is razed to the ground, and the plough made to pass over it.
- 79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius.
- 85 Julius Agricola, governor of South Britain, defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus, on the Grampian hills; and first sails round Britain, which he discovers to be an island.
- 96 St. John the Evangelist wrote his Revelations—his Gospel in 97.
- 121 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the southern parts of Scotland.
- 135 The second Jewish war ends, when they were all banished Judea.
- 139 Justin writes his first apology for the Christians.
- 152 The emperor Antoninus Pius stops the persecution against the Christians.
- 222 About this time the Roman empire begins to sink under its own weight. The Barbarians begin their eruptions, and the Goths have annual tribute not to molest the empire.
- 260 Valerius is taken prisoner by Sapor, king of Persia, and flayed alive.
- 274 Silk first brought from India; the manufactory of it introduced into Europe by some monks, in 551; first worn by the clergy in England, 1534.
- 306 Constantine the Great begins his reign.
- 308 Cardinals first created.
- 313 The tenth persecution ends by an edict of Constantine, who favours the Christians, and gives full liberty to their religion.
- 314 Three bishops, or fathers, are sent from Britain to assist at the council of Arles.
- 325 The first general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended against Arius, where was composed the famous Nicene creed, which we attribute to them.
- 328 Constantine removes the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is thenceforward called Constantinople.
- 331 ——— orders all the heathen temples to be destroyed.
- 363 The Roman emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem.
- 364 The Roman empire is divided into the eastern (Constantinople the capital) and western (of which Rome continued to be the capital) each being now under the government of different emperors.
- 400 Bells introduced by bishop Paulinus, of Campania.
- 404 The kingdom of Caledonia or Scotland revives under Fergus.
- 406 The Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, spread into France and Spain, by a concession of Honorius, emperor of the West.
- 410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Visi-Goths.
- 412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.
- 420 The kingdom of France begins upon the Lower Rhine, under Pharamond.
- 426 The Romans, reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return; advising the Britons to arm in their own defence, and trust to their own valour.
- 446 The Britons, now left to themselves, are greatly harassed by the Scots and Picts; upon which they once more make their complaints to the Romans, but receive no assistance from that quarter.
- 447 Attila (surnamed the scourge of God) with his Huns ravages the Roman empire.

- 449 Vortigern, king of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain, against the Scots and Picts.
- 455 The Saxons, having repulsed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to establish themselves in Kent, under Hengist.
- 476 The western empire ends, 523 years after the battle of Pharsalia; upon the ruins of which, several new states arise in Italy and other parts, consisting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, under whom literature is extinguished, and the works of the learned destroyed.
- 496 Clovis king of France baptised, and Christianity begins in that kingdom.
- 508 Prince Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.
- 513 Constantinople besieged by Vitellianus, whose fleet is burned by a speculum of brass.
- 516 The computing of time by the Christian æra introduced by Dionysius the monk.
- 529 The code of Justinian, the eastern emperor, published.
- 557 A terrible plague all over Europe, Asia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.
- 581 Latin ceased to be spoken about this time in Italy.
- 596 Augustine the monk comes into England, with forty monks.
- 606 The power of the popes begins, by the concession of Phocas, emperor of the East.
- 622 Mahomet flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia, in the 54th year of his age and the tenth of his ministry, when he laid the foundation of the Saracen empire, and from whom the Mahometan princes to this day claim their descent. His followers compute their time from this æra, which in Arabic is called Hegira, i. e. the flight.
- 637 Jerusalem taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
- 640 Alexandria in Egypt taken by the same, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar, their caliph or prince.
- 643 The Saracens extend their conquests on every side, and retaliate the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity.
- 664 Glass introduced into England by Benalt, a monk.
- 685 The Britons, after a brave struggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
- 713 The Saracens conquer Spain.
- 726 The controversy about images begins, and occasions many insurrections in the eastern empire.
- 748 The computing of years from the birth of Christ began to be used in history.
- 749 The race of Abbas become caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.
- 762 The city of Bagdad, upon the Tigris, is made the capital for the caliphs of the house of Abbas.
- 800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the western empire; gives the present names to the days and months; endeavours to restore learning in Europe; but mankind are not yet disposed for it, being solely engrossed in military enterprises.
- 826 Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his subjects for being a Christian.
- 828 Egbert, king of Wessex, unites the Heptarchy, by the name of England.
- 838 The Scots and Picts have a decisive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth; which begins the second period of the Scottish history.
- 867 The Danes begin their ravages in England.
- 896 Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders (against whom he fought 56 battles by sea and land) composes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, tythings; erects county-courts, and founds the university of Oxford about this time.
- 915 The university of Cambridge founded.
- 936 The Saracen empire is divided by usurpation into seven kingdoms.
- 975 Pope Boniface VII, is deposed and banished for his crimes.
- 979 Coronation oaths said to be first used in England.
- 991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia. Letters of the alphabet were hitherto used.
- 996 Otho III, makes the empire of Germany elective.
- 999 Boleslaus, the first king of Poland.
- 1000 Paper made of cotton rags was in use; that of linen rags in 1770: the manufactory introduced into England at Dartford, 1588.

- 1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.
- 1015 Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.
- 1017 Canute, king of Denmark, gets possession of England.
- 1040 The Danes, after several engagements, with various success, are about this time driven out of Scotland, and never again return in a hostile manner.
- 1041 The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor.
- 1043 The Turks (a nation of adventurers from Tartary, serving hitherto in the armies of contending princes) become formidable, and take possession of Persia.
- 1054 Leo IX, the first pope that maintained an army.
- 1057 Malcolm III, king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Dunsinnane, and marries the princess Margaret, sister to Edgar Atheling.
- 1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
- 1066 The battle of Hastings fought between Harold and William (surnamed the Bastard) duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and slain, after which William becomes king of England.
- 1070 William introduces the feudal law.
Musical notes invented.
- 1075 Henry IV, emperor of Germany, and the pope, quarrel about the nomination of the German bishops. Henry, in penance, walks bare-footed to the pope towards the end of January.
- 1076 Justices of the peace first appointed in England.
- 1080 Doomsday book began to be compiled by order of William, from a survey of all the estates in England, and finished in 1086.
The Tower of London built by William, to curb his English subjects: numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduce the English or Saxon language, are protected by Malcolm, and have lands given them.
- 1091 The Saracens in Spain being hard pressed by the Spaniards, call to their assistance Joseph, king of Morocco; by which the Moors gain possession of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
- 1096 The first crusade to the Holy Land is begun under several Christian princes, to drive the infidels from Jerusalem.
- 1110 Edgar Atheling, the last of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reside as a subject.
- 1118 The order of the Knights Templars instituted, to defend the sepulchre at Jerusalem, and to protect Christian strangers.
- 1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
- 1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.
- 1172 Henry II, king of England (and first of the Plantagenets) takes possession of Ireland, which, from that period, has been governed by an English viceroy, or lord lieutenant.
- 1180 Glass windows began to be used in private houses in England.
- 1182 Pope Alexander III, compelled the kings of England and France to hold the stirrups of his saddle when he mounted his horse.
- 1186 The great conjunction of the sun and moon and all the planets in Libra, in September.
- 1192 The battle of Ascalon, in Palestine, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladin's army, consisting of 300,000 combatants.
- 1194 *Dieu et mon Droit* first used as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.
- 1200 Surnames now began to be used; first among the nobility.
- 1215 Magna Charta signed by king John and the barons of England.
- 1227 The Tartars, under Gingus Khan, emerge from the northern parts of Asia, overrun all the Saracen empire; and, in imitation of former conquerors, carry death and desolation wherever they march.
- 1233 The Inquisition, begun in 1204, is now committed to the Dominicans.
The houses of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, still thatched with straw.
- 1253 The famous astronomical tables are composed by Alphonso, king of Castile.
- 1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which finishes the empire of the Saracens.
- 1263 Acho, king of Norway, invades Scotland with 160 sail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, who are cut to pieces by Alexander III, who recovers the Western isles.

- 1264 According to some writers, the commons of England were not summoned to parliament till this period.
- 1269 The Hamburgh company incorporated in England.
- 1273 The empire of the present Austrian family begins in Germany.
- 1282 Llewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I, who unites that principality to England.
- 1284 Edward II, born at Caernarvon, is the first prince of Wales.
- 1285 Alexander III, king of Scotland, dies, and that kingdom is disputed by twelve candidates, who submit their claims to the arbitration of Edward king of England; which lays the foundation of a long and desolating war between both nations.
- 1293 There is a regular succession of English parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.
- 1298 The present Turkish empire begins in Bithynia, under Ottoman.
- 1298 Silver-hafted knives, spoons, and cups, a great luxury.
Tallow candles so great a luxury, that splinters of wood were used for lights.
Wine sold by apothecaries as a cordial.
- 1302 The mariner's compass invented, or improved, by Givias, of Naples.
- 1307 The beginning of the Swiss cantons.
- 1308 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
- 1310 Lincoln's Inn society established.
- 1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II, and Robert Bruce, which establishes the latter on the throne of Scotland.
The cardinals set fire to the conclave, and separate. A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.
- 1336 Two Brabant weavers settle at York, which, says Edward III, may prove of great benefit to us and our subjects.
- 1337 The first comet whose course is described with astronomical exactness.
- 1340 Gunpowder and guns first invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne; 1346, Edward III, had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Cressy: 1346, bombs and mortars were invented.
Oil painting first made use of by John Vaneck.
Herald's college instituted in England.
- 1344 Gold first coined in England.
The first creation to titles by patent used by Edward III.
- 1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scots is taken prisoner.
- 1349 The order of the Garter instituted in England by Edward III, altered in 1557, and consists of 26 knights.
- 1352 The Turks first enter Europe.
- 1354 The money in Scotland till now the same as in England.
- 1356 The battle of Poitiers, in which John of France and his son are taken prisoners by Edward the black prince.
- 1357 Coals first brought to London.
- 1358 Arms of England and France first quartered by Edward III.
- 1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to English, as a favour of Edward III, to his people.
John Wickliffe, an Englishman, begins about this time to oppose the errors of the church of Rome with great acuteness and spirit. His followers are called Lollards.
- 1386 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands established in London.
- 1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotspur and the earl of Douglas; on this is founded the ballad of Chevy Chase.
- 1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amusement.
- 1399 Westminster abbey rebuilt and enlarged—Westminster hall ditto.
Order of the Bath instituted at the coronation of Henry IV, renewed in 1725; consisting of 38 knights.
- 1411 The university of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.
- 1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V, of England.
- 1428 The siege of Orleans, the first blow to the English power in France.
- 1430 About this time Laurentius of Haarlem invented the art of printing, which he practised with wooden types. Guttenburgh afterwards invented cut metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schoeffer, who invented the mode of casting the types in matrices. Frederic Corssellis began to print in Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types: but it was

- William Caxton who introduced into England the art of printing with fusile types in 1474
- 1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
The sea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
- 1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks, which ends the eastern empire, 1123 years from its dedication by Constantine the Great, and 2206 years from the foundation of Rome.
- 1454 The university of Glasgow, in Scotland, founded.
- 1460 Engraving and etching on copper invented.
- 1477 The university of Aberdeen, in Scotland, founded.
- 1483 Richard III, king of England, and the last of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Bosworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII, which puts an end to the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, after a contest of 30 years, and the loss of 100,000 men.
- 1488 Henry establishes fifty yeomen of the guards, the first standing army.
- 1489 Maps and sea charts first brought to England by Barth. Columbus.
- 1491 William Grocyn publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford.
The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely subdued by Ferdinand, and become subjects to that prince on certain conditions, which are ill observed by the Spaniards, whose clergy employ the powers of the Inquisition, with all its tortures: and in 1609, near one million of the Moors are driven from Spain to the opposite coast of Africa, from whence they originally came.
- 1492 America first discovered by Colon, or Columbus, a Genoese, in the service of Spain.
- 1494 Algebra first known in Europe.
- 1497 The Portuguese first sail to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
South America discovered by Americus Vesputius, from whom it has its name.
- 1499 North America discovered for Henry VII, by Cabot.
- 1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into six circles, and adds four more in 1512.
- 1505 Shillings first coined in England.
- 1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.
- 1513 The battle of Flodden, in which James IV, of Scotland is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
- 1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
Egypt conquered by the Turks.
- 1518 Magellan, in the service of Spain, first discovers the straits of that name in South America.
- 1520 Henry VIII, for his writings in favour of popery, receives the title of Defender of the faith from the pope.
- 1529 The name of Protestant takes its rise from the Reformed protesting against the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.
- 1534 The Reformation takes place in England under Henry VIII.
- 1537 Religious houses dissolved by Henry VIII.
- 1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorised; the present translation finished 1611.
About this time cannon began to be used in ships.
- 1543 Silk stockings first worn by the French king: first worn in England by queen Elizabeth, 1561; the steel frame for weaving, invented by the Rev. Mr. Lee, of St. John's College Cambridge, 1589.
Pins first used in England, before which time the ladies used skewers.
- 1544 Good lands let in England, at one shilling per acre.
- 1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
- 1546 First law in England establishing the interest of money at ten per cent.
- 1549 Lord lieutenants of counties instituted in England.
- 1550 Horse guards instituted in England.
- 1555 The Russian company established in England.
- 1558 Queen Elizabeth begins her reign.
- 1560 The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.
- 1563 Knives first made in England.
- 1572 The great massacre of Protestants at Paris.
- 1579 The Dutch shake off the Spanish yoke, and the republic of Holland begins.

- English East India company incorporated—established in 1600.
 English Turkey company incorporated.
- 1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the first English circumnavigator.
- 1582 Parochial register first appointed in England.
- 1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the 5th of October being counted the 15th.
- 1583 Tobacco first brought from Virginia into England.
- 1587 Mary queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years imprisonment.
- 1588 The Spanish Armada destroyed by Drake and other English admirals.
 Henry IV, passes the edict of Nantz tolerating the Protestants.
- 1589 Coaches first introduced into England; hackney act 1693; increased to 1000 in 1770, and to 1200 in 1801.
- 1590 Band of pensioners instituted in England.
- 1591 Trinity college, Dublin, founded.
- 1597 Watches first brought into England from Germany.
- 1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
- 1603 Queen Elizabeth (the last of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI, of Scotland (and first of the Stuarts) as her successor; which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
- 1604 The Gunpowder plot discovered at Westminster; being a project of the Roman Catholics to blow up the king and both houses of parliament.
- 1606 Oaths of allegiance first administered in England.
- 1608 Galileo, of Florence, first discovers the satellites about the planet Jupiter, by the telescope, then just invented in Holland.
- 1610 Henry IV, is murdered at Paris by Ravaillac, a priest.
- 1611 Baronets first created in England, by James I.
- 1614 Napier of Merchiston, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
- 1616 The first permanent settlement in Virginia.
- 1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Englishman, discovers the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
- 1620 The broad silk manufactory from raw silk introduced into England.
- 1621 New England planted by the Puritans.
- 1625 King James dies, and is succeeded by his son, Charles I.
 The island of Barbadoes, the first English settlement in the West Indies, is planted.
- 1626 The barometer invented by Torricelli.
- 1627 The thermometer invented by Drabellius.
- 1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Protestants in Germany, is killed.
- 1635 Province of Maryland planted by lord Baltimore.
 Regular posts established from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
- 1640 King Charles disobliges his Scottish subjects; on which their army under general Lesley enters England, and takes Newcastle, being encouraged by the malcontents in England.
 The massacre in Ireland, when 40,000 English protestants were killed.
- 1642 King Charles impeaches five members, who had opposed his arbitrary measures; which begins the civil war in England.
- 1643 Excise on beer, ale, &c. first imposed by parliament.
- 1646 Episcopacy abolished in England.
- 1649 Charles I, beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
- 1654 Cromwell assumes the protectorship.
- 1655 The English, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
- 1658 Cromwell dies, and is succeeded in the protectorship by his son Richard.
- 1660 King Charles II, is restored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
 Episcopacy restored in England and Scotland.
 The people of Denmark, being oppressed by the nobles, surrender their privileges to Frederic III, who becomes absolute.
- 1662 The Royal Society established in London by Charles II.
- 1663 Carolina planted; in 1728, divided into two separate governments.
- 1664 The New Netherlands, in North America, conquered from the Swedes and Dutch, by the English.
- 1665 The plague rages in London and carries off 68,000 persons.

- 1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2, and continued three days, in which were destroyed 13,000 houses, and 400 streets.
Tea first used in England.
- 1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English the New Netherlands, now known by the names of Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.
- 1668 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
- 1670 The English Hudson's Bay company incorporated.
- 1672 Louis XIV, overruns great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their sluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their settlements in the East Indies.
African company established.
- 1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act.
- 1680 A great comet appeared, and continued visible from Nov. 3 to March 9.
William Penn, a quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennsylvania.
- 1683 India stock sold from 360 to 500 per cent.
- 1685 Charles II, dies, aged 55, and is succeeded by his brother, James II.
The duke of Monmouth, natural son to Charles II, raises a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.
The edict of Nantz infamously revoked by Louis XIV, and the Protestants cruelly persecuted.
- 1687 The palace of Versailles, near Paris, finished by Louis XIV.
- 1688 The revolution in Great Britain begins Nov. 5; king James abdicates, and retires to France, Dec. 3.
- 1689 King William and queen Mary, daughter and son-in-law to James, are proclaimed, February 16.
Viscount Dundee stands out for James in Scotland, but is killed by general Mackay at the battle of Killycrankie, upon which the Highlanders, wearied with repeated misfortunes, disperse.
The land-tax passed in England.
The toleration act passed in ditto.
Several bishops are deprived for not taking the oath to king William.
- 1690 The battle of the Boyne, gained by William against James, in Ireland.
- 1691 The war in Ireland finished, by the surrender of Limerick to William.
- 1692 The English and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Russell, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue.
- 1693 Bayonets at the ends of loaded muskets first used, by the French against the confederates, in the battle of Turin.
The duchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.
Bank of England established by king William.
The first public lottery was drawn this year.
Massacre of Highlanders at Glencoe by king William's troops.
- 1694 Queen Mary dies at the age of 33, and William reigns alone.
Stamp duties instituted in England.
- 1695 The peace of Ryswick.
- 1699 The Scots settled a colony at the isthmus of Darien, in America, and called it Caledonia.
- 1700 Charles XII, of Sweden, begins his reign.
King James II, dies at St. Germain, in the 68th year of his age.
- 1701 Prussia erected into a kingdom.
Society for the propagation of the gospel in foreign parts established.
- 1702 King William dies, aged 50, and is succeeded by queen Anne, daughter to James II, who, with the Emperor and States General, renews the war against France and Spain.
- 1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards by admiral sir George Rooke.
The battle of Blenheim won by the duke of Marlborough and allies, against the French.
The court of exchequer instituted in England.
- 1706 The treaty of union betwixt England and Scotland signed July 22.
The battle of Ramillies won by Marlborough and the allies.
- 1707 The first British parliament.
- 1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by general Stanhope.
The battle of Oudenarde won by Marlborough and the allies.
Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.

- 1709 Peter the Great, czar of Muscovy, defeats Charles XII, at Pultowa, who flies to Turkey.
The battle of Maipiaquet won by Marlborough and the allies.
- 1710 Queen Anne changes the Whig ministry for others more favourable to the interest of her supposed brother, the late Pretender.
The cathedral church of St. Paul, London, rebuilt by sir Christopher Wren, in 37 years, at one million expence, by a duty on coals.
The English South-Sea company began.
- 1713 The peace of Utrecht, by which Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, New Britain, and Hudson's Bay, in North America, were yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were also confirmed to the said crown by this treaty.
- 1714 Queen Anne dies at the age of 50, and is succeeded by George I.
Interest reduced to five per cent.
- 1715 Louis XIV, dies, and is succeeded by his great-grandson, Louis XV.
The rebellion in Scotland begins in September, under the earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriff-muir, and the surrender of Preston, both in November, when the rebels disperse.
- 1716 The Pretender married to the princess Sobieski, grand-daughter of John Sobieski, late king of Poland.
An act passed for septennial parliaments.
- 1719 The Mississippi scheme at its height in France.
Lombe's silk-throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby; takes up one eighth of a mile; one water-wheel moves the rest; and in 24 hours it works 318,504,960 yards of organzine silk thread.
- 1720 The South-sea scheme in England, begun April 7, was at its height at the end of June, and quite sunk about September 29.
- 1727 King George dies, in the 68th year of his age; and is succeeded by his only son, George II.
Inoculation first tried on criminals with success.
Russia, formerly a dukedom, is now established as an empire.
- 1732 Kouli Khan usurps the Persian throne, conquers the Mogul empire, and returns with 231,000,000*l.* sterling.
Several public-spirited gentlemen begin the settlement of Georgia, in North America.
- 1739 War declared against Spain by the British.
- 1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the English and allies, in favour of the queen of Hungary.
- 1744 War between England and France. Commodore Anson returns from his voyage round the world.
- 1745 The allies lose the battle of Fontenoy.
The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
- 1746 British Linen Company erected.
- 1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which a restitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all sides.
- 1749 The interest of the British funds reduced to three per cent.
British herring fishery incorporated.
- 1750 Frederic, prince of Wales, father to George III. died.
Antiquarian society at London incorporated.
- 1752 The new style introduced into Great Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.
- 1755 Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake, Nov. 1.
- 1756 One hundred and forty-six Englishmen confined in the black hole at Calcutta, in the East Indies, by order of the nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.
- 1757 Damien attempted to assassinate the French king.
- 1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the English.
- 1760 King George II, dies October 25, in the 77th year of his age, and is succeeded by his grandson George III, who, on the 22d of September 1761 married the princess Charlotte of Mecklenburgh Strelitz.
Blackfriars-bridge, consisting of nine arches, begun; finished 1770, at the expence of 15,840*l.* to be discharged by a toll.
- 1762 War between England and Spain.

Peter III, emperor of Russia, is deposed, imprisoned, and murdered.

American philosophical society established in Philadelphia.

- 1763 The definitive treaty of peace, between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris, February 10, which confirmed to Great Britain the extensive provinces of Canada, East and West Florida, and part of Louisiana, in North America; also the islands of Grenada, St. Vincent's, Dominica, and Tobago, in the West Indies.
- 1764 The parliament granted 10,000*l.* to Mr. Harrison, for his discovery of the longitude by his time-piece.
- 1768 The Turks imprison the Russian ambassador, and declare war against that empire.
- 1771 Dr. Solander and Sir Joseph Banks, in the Endeavour, captain Cook, return from a voyage round the world, having made several important discoveries in the South Seas.
- 1772 The king of Sweden changes the constitution of that kingdom.
The emperor of Germany, empress of Russia, and the king of Prussia, strip the king of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themselves, in violation of the most solemn treaties.
- 1773 Captain Phipps is sent to explore the north pole; but, having made eighty-one degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to discover a passage in that quarter proves fruitless.
The Jesuits expelled from the Pope's dominions, and suppressed by his bull, August 25.
The English East India Company, having by conquest or treaty, acquired the extensive provinces of Bengal, Orixá, and Bahar, containing fifteen millions of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their servants abroad; upon which government interferes, and sends out judges, &c. for the better administration of justice.
The war between the Russians and Turks proves disgraceful to the latter, who lose the islands in the Archipelago, and by sea are every where unsuccessful.
Peace concluded between the Russians and Turks.
The British parliament having passed an act, laying a duty of three-pence per pound upon all teas imported into America, the colonies, considering this as a grievance, deny the right of a British parliament to tax them.
Deputies from the several American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the first general congress, September 5.
First petition of congress to the king, November.
- 1775 April 19, the first action happens in America between the king's troops and the provincials at Lexington.
May 20, Articles of confederation and perpetual union between the American provinces.
June 17, A bloody action at Bunker's Hill, between the royal troops and the Americans.
- 1776 March 17, The town of Boston evacuated by the king's troops.
The congress declare the American colonies free and independent states, July 4.
Torture abolished in Poland.
- 1777 General Howe takes possession of Philadelphia.
Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to surrender his army, at Saratoga, in Canada, by convention, to the American army, under the command of the generals, Gates and Arnold, Oct. 17.
- 1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen united American colonies, in which their independence is acknowledged by the court of France, February 6.
The remains of the earl of Chatham interred at the public expence in Westminster Abbey, June 9, in consequence of a vote of parliament.
Philadelphia evacuated by the king's troops, June 18.
- 1780 Torture in courts of justice abolished in France.
The inquisition abolished in the duke of Modena's dominions.
Charleston, South Carolina, surrenders to sir Henry Clinton, May 4.
Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida, surrender to the arms of the king of Spain, May 9.
The pretended Protestant Association, to the number of 50,000 go up to the House of Commons, with their petition for the repeal of an act passed in favour of the Papists, June 2.

- That event followed by the most daring riots in the city of London and in Southwark, for several successive days, in which some Popish chapels are destroyed, together with the prisons of Newgate, the King's Bench, the Fleet, several private houses, &c. These alarming riots are at length suppressed, by the interposition of the military, and many of the rioters are tried and executed for felony.
- Five English East-Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships bound for the West Indies, taken by the combined fleets of France and Spain, Aug. 8.
- General Arnold deserts the service of the Congress, escapes to New York, and is made a brigadier-general in the royal service, September 24.
- Major Andre, adjutant-general to the British army, hanged as a spy at Tappan in the province of New York, October 2.
- Dreadful hurricanes in the West Indies, by which great devastation is made in Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Dominica, and other islands, Oct. 8 and 10.
- A declaration of hostilities published by England against Holland, December 20.
- 1781 The Dutch island of St. Eustatia, taken by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, February 3, retaken by the French, November 27.
- Earl Cornwallis, with a considerable British army, surrendered prisoners of war to the American and French troops, under the command of general Washington and count Rochambeau, at York-town in Virginia, Oct. 19.
- 1782 The house of commons address the king against any further prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America, March 4.
- Admiral Rodney obtains a signal victory over the French fleet, under the command of count de Grasse, near Dominica in the West Indies, April 12.
- The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, Sept. 13.
- Treaty concluded betwixt the republic of Holland and the United States of America, October 8.
- Provisional articles of peace signed at Paris between the British and American commissioners, by which the thirteen United American Colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic majesty to be free, sovereign, and independent states, November 30.
- 1783 Preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic majesty and the kings of France and Spain, signed at Versailles, January 20.
- Three earthquakes in Calabria Ulterior and Sicily, destroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, February 5, 7, and 28.
- Armistice between Great Britain and Holland, February 10.
- Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, September 3.
- 1784 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.
- The memory of Handel commemorated by a grand jubilee, at Westminster-Abbey, May 26.
- Mr. Lunardi ascended in a balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, the first attempt of the kind in England, September 15.
- The bull feasts abolished in Spain, except for pious or patriotic uses, by edict, November 14.
- 1785 Mr. Blanchard and Dr. Jefferies went from Dover to Calais in an air balloon in about two hours, January 7.
- M de Rosier and M. Romain ascended at Boulogne, intending to cross the channel: in twenty minutes the balloon took fire, and the aeronauts came to the ground and were killed on the spot.
- 1786 The king of Sweden prohibited the use of torture in his dominions.
- Cardinal Turlone, high inquisitor at Rome was publicly dragged out of his carriage by an incensed multitude for his cruelty, and hanged on a gibbet fifty feet high.
- Commercial treaty signed between England and France, September 26.
- 1789 Revolution in France, capture of the Bastile, execution of the governor, &c. July 14.
- 1790 Grand confederation in the Champ de Mars, July 14.
- 1791 Riots at Birmingham: the meeting-houses, and houses of Dr. Priestly and others destroyed by the mob, July 14.
- 1792 The definitive treaty of peace was signed between the British and their allies, the Nizam and Mahrattas on one part, and Tippoo Sultan on the other, March 19, by which he ceded one half of his territorial possessions,

and delivered up two of his sons to lord Cornwallis, as hostages for the fulfilment of the treaty.

Gustavus III, king of Sweden, died on the 29th of March, in consequence of being assassinated by Ankerstrom.

- 1793 Louis XVI, after having received innumerable indignities from his people, was brought to the scaffold, January 21, and had his head severed by the guillotine, contrary to the express laws of the new constitution, which had declared the person of the king inviolable.

On the 25th of March, lord Grenville and count Worenzow signed a convention at London on behalf of his Britannic majesty and the empress of Russia, to employ their forces, conjointly, in a war against France. Treaties were also entered into with the king of Sardinia and the prince of Hesse Cassel.

The unfortunate queen of France, on the 16th of October, was conducted to the spot where Louis had previously met his fate, and beheaded by the guillotine in the thirty-eighth year of her age.

- 1794 On the first of June, the British fleet under the command of admiral earl Howe obtained a signal victory over that of the French, in which two ships were sunk, one burnt, and six brought into Portsmouth harbour.

- 1795 In consequence of the rapid progress of the French arms in Holland, the princess of Orange, the hereditary princess, and her infant son, arrived at Yarmouth on the 19th of January. The Stadtholder landed at Harwich on the 20th.

- 1796 Lord Malmesbury went to Paris in October, to open negotiations for a general peace: but returned, Dec. 29, without having effected the object of his mission.

- 1797 A signal victory gained over the Spanish fleet by sir John Jervis, afterwards created earl St Vincent, February 14.

Lord Malmesbury arrived at Lisle July 4, and opened a negociation for a peace between England and the French Republic, but again returned without effecting the object of his mission, September 19.

A signal victory gained over the Dutch fleet by admiral Duncan, Oct. 11.

Peace between France and Austria definitively signed at Campo Formio, October 17.

- 1798 A dreadful rebellion in Ireland, which was quelled, after several battles with the insurgents, and much bloodshed.

The victory of admiral Nelson at Aboukir, near the mouth of the Nile, in which nine French ships of the line were taken, and two burnt; only two escaping, which were afterwards taken, August 1.

- 1799 The war against France recommenced by the emperor; and the French driven out of almost all their conquests in Italy, by the Austrians and Russians under Suwarrow.

Seringapatam taken by lieutenant-general Harris, and Tippoo Sultan killed, May 4.

The directorial government abolished in France, and a new constitution framed, according to which Bonaparte was to be first consul for ten years.

- 1800 The battle of Marengo gained by Bonaparte, and followed by an armistice, and the surrender of all the strong places held by the Austrians in Italy, June 15.

- 1801 The union with Ireland took place, Jan. 1.

The right hon. Wm. Pitt sent in his resignation of the offices of chancellor of the exchequer and first lord of the treasury, after having been minister 17 years, Feb. 6.

The peace of Luneville, between France and Austria, signed Feb. 9.

The battle of Alexandria in Egypt gained by the British troops, in which the brave general Abercrombie was mortally wounded, March 21.

The death of the emperor Paul of Russia, March 24.

The battle of Copenhagen, in which 18 Danish ships were taken or destroyed by lord Nelson, April 2.

Preliminaries of peace signed between England and France, Oct. 1.

An attempt made to assassinate Bonaparte, by exploding a barrel of gunpowder, called by the French the *infernal machine*.

- 1802 The definitive Treaty of Peace between Great Britain and the French Republic signed at Amiens, March 27.

- Peace between England France proclaimed, April 29.
- 1803 War between England and France renewed.
The French army under general Mortier took possession of the city and electorate of Hanover, June 5.
An insurrection in Dublin, in which lord Kilwarden, chief justice of the court of king's bench in Ireland, and his nephew Mr. Wolfe, were inhumanly murdered, July 23.
- 1804 The duke d'Enghein seized by Bonaparte on a neutral territory, April 3; shot in the night in the wood of Vincennes, April 11.
Mr Pitt again appointed to the office of chancellor of the exchequer, May 10.
Bonaparte proclaimed emperor of the French May 30.
Francis II, emperor of Germany and king of Hungary, assumes the title of emperor of Austria, Sept. 5.
Sir George Humboldt, the English resident at Hamburg, seized by a party of French soldiers, and sent to Hanover, and thence to Paris, Nov. 2.
Bonaparte crowned emperor of the French by the Pope, at Paris, Dec. 2.
- 1805 The Italian Republic declared an hereditary monarchy, by the title of the Kingdom of Italy. Bonaparte accepts the crown, March 17.
Bonaparte crowned king of Italy at Milan, May 26.
Russia and Austria unite against France.
The allies defeated by Bonaparte at Austerlitz Dec. 2.
The combined French and Spanish fleet completely defeated off Cape Trafalgar, by lord Nelson.
Treaty of Presburg Dec. 27. Peace between France and Austria.
- 1806 Joseph Bonaparte placed on the throne of Naples.
Louis Bonaparte made king of Holland.
War between France and Prussia.
Prussians defeated at Jena, Oct. 13.
- 1807 Slave trade abolished in England.
Russians defeated by Bonaparte at Eylau Feb. 8, and at Friedland June 14.
Treaty of Tilsit, July 9.
Copenhagen bombarded and captured with the Danish fleet by the British, Sept. 7.
The emperor of Russia recalls his minister from London, and declares war against England.
The government and royal family of Portugal remove to Brazil.
- 1808 The invasion of Spain by France.
The king of Spain enticed to Bayonne, where his person is detained, and he is compelled to resign his crown in favour of Bonaparte.
War between Sweden and Russia.
- 1809 A very superior French army repulsed by the British under sir John Moore at Corunna, Jan. 16, in which affair that gallant commander lost his life.
Commencement of hostilities between France and Austria, April 10.
Gustavus IV, king of Sweden, deposed by the diet, and Charles XIII, duke of Sudermania, called to the throne, May 10.
The Austrian army completely overthrown by Bonaparte at Wagram, July 6.
Sir Arthur Wellesley defeats the French army at Talavera, July 29.
- 1810 Bonaparte married to the arch-duchess Maria-Louisa of Austria, March 31.
Louis Bonaparte abdicates the throne of Holland, July 1.
Holland united to the French empire, July 9.
Bernadotte, prince of Ponte Corvo, elected crown prince of Sweden, August 18.
- 1812 The congress of the United States declare war against Great Britain, June 18.
Bonaparte commences his invasion of Russia with an army of 400,000 men, June 23.
Fort Detroit, with an army of 2500 men, commanded by general Hull, surrenders to the British forces under general Brock, Aug. 16.
The battle of Borodino, in which 80,000 men and 25,000 horses were killed, Sept. 7.
Bonaparte commences his retreat from Moscow Oct. 11, arrives at Warsaw Dec. 10, and at Paris Dec. 18.
- 1813 Sweden issues a declaration of war against France, Jan. 7.

Prussia joins the allies, March 17.

The emperor of Austria issues a manifesto against Bonaparte, Aug. 10.

The British fleet on lake Erie defeated and captured by commodore Perry, Sept 10.

The battle of Leipzig fought on the 16th, 18th, and 19th of October, which resulted in the complete defeat of the French army.

The Dutch rise upon the French authorities in Holland, and recall the prince of Orange, Nov.

Lord Wellington enters France from Spain, Nov. 10.

The grand allied army passes the French frontier, Dec. 20.

1814 Paris surrenders to the allies, March 30.

Bonaparte deposed, and Louis XVIII. called to the throne of France, April 6.

Ferdinand VII, king of Spain, returns to his kingdom, after having been seven years a prisoner in France, May 6.

The battle of Bridgewater, the severest action fought on the Canada frontier during the war. The British, though superior in numbers, were repulsed, but the Americans were afterwards obliged to retreat, July 25.

Washington taken possession of by a British force under general Ross, and the public buildings destroyed by fire, Aug. 24.

The British army repulsed before Plattsburg, and their whole fleet on lake Champlain captured by the Americans, Sept. 11.

The British repulsed before Baltimore. Gen. Ross killed, Sept. 13.

Treaty of peace between the United States of America and Great Britain, signed at Ghent, Dec. 24.

1815 The British army defeated with great slaughter, in an attack on New-Orleans, Jan. 8.

Bonaparte restored to the throne of France, March 30.

MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

N. B. By the Dates is implied the Time when the above writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flourished is signified by fl. The names in Italics are those who have given the best English Translations, inclusive of School Books.

Bef. Ch.

907 HOMER the first profane writer and Greek poet, flourished. *Pope. Cowper.*

Hesiod the Greek poet, supposed to live near the time of Homer. *Cooke.*

884 Lycurgus the Spartan lawgiver.

600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poetess, fl. *Fawkes.*

558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.

556 Æsop, the first Greek fabulist. *Croxal.*

546 Thales, the first Greek astronomer and geographer.

497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philosophy in Greece. *Rowe.*

474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. *Fawkes. Addison.*

456 Æschylus, the first Greek tragic poet. *Potter.*

435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet. *West.*

413 Herodotus of Greece, the first writer of profane history. *Littlebury. Beloe.*

407 Anaxophanes, the Greek comet poet fl. *White.*

Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. *Woodhull.*

403 Sophocles, ditto. *Franklin. Potter.*

Confucius, the Chinese Philosopher, fl.

400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy in Greece.

391 Thucydides, the Greek historian. *Smith. Hobbes.*

361 Hippocrates, the Greek physician. *Clifton.*

Democritus, the Greek philosopher.

359 Xenophon, ditto, and historian. *Smith. Spelman. Ashly. Fielding.*

348 Plato, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Socrates. *Sydenham.*

335 Isocrates, the Greek orator. *Gillies.*

322 Aristotle, the Greek philosopher, and the disciple of Plato. *Hobbes.*

- 313 Demosthenes, the Athenian orator, poisoned himself. *Leland. Francis.*
 288 Theophrastus, the Greek philosopher, and scholar of Aristotle. *Budgel.*
 285 Theocritus, the first Greek pastoral poet, fl. *Fawkes.*
 277 Euclid, of Alexandria in Egypt, the mathematician, fl. *R. Simson.*
 270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philosophy in Greece.
 264 Xeno, founder of the stoic philosophy in ditto.
 244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet. *Tytler.*
 208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.
 184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet. *Thornton.*
 159 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet. *Colman.*
 155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the stoic philosopher.
 124 Polybius, of Greece, the Greek and Roman historian. *Hampton.*
 54 Lucretius, the Roman poet. *Creech.*
 44 Julius Cæsar, the Roman historian and commentator, killed. *Duncan.*
 Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the universal historian, fl. *Booth.*
 Vitruvius, the Roman architect, fl.
 43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philosopher, put to death. *Guthrie. Melmoth.*
 Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl. *Rowe.*
 34 Sallust, the Roman historian. *Gordon. Rowe.*
 30 Dionysius of Halicarnassus, the Roman historian, fl. *Spelman.*
 19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet. *Dryden. Pitt. Warton.*
 11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets. *Grainger. Dart.*
 8 Horace, the Roman lyric and satiric poet. *Francis.*
 A. C.
 17 Livy, the Roman historian. *Hay.*
 19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet. *Garth.*
 20 Celsus, the Roman philosopher and physician, fl. *Grieve.*
 25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
 43 Phædrus, the Roman fabulist. *Smart.*
 95 Paternulus, the Roman historian, fl. *Newcome.*
 62 Persius, the Roman satiric poet. *Brewster.*
 65 Quintus Curtius, a Roman historian of Alexander the Great, fl. *Digby.*
 Seneca, of Spain, the philosopher and tragic poet, put to death. *L'Estrange.*
 65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet. *Rowe.*
 79 Pliny the elder, the Roman historian. *Holland.*
 93 Josephus, the Jewish historian. *Whiston.*
 94 Epictetus, the Greek stoic philosopher, fl. *Mrs. Carter.*
 95 Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate. *Guthrie.*
 96 Statius, the Roman epic poet. *Lewis.*
 98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman historian, fl.
 99 Tacitus, the Roman historian. *Gordon. Murphy.*
 104 Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. *Hay.*
 Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
 116 Pliny the younger, historical letters. *Melmoth. Orrery.*
 117 Suetonius, the Roman historian. *Hughes. Thomson.*
 118 Plutarch, of Greece, the biographer. *Dryden. Langhorne.*
 128 Juvenal, the Roman satiric poet. *Dryden.*
 140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and astronomer, fl.
 150 Justin, the Roman historian, fl. *Turnbull.*
 161 Arrian, the Roman historian and philosopher, fl. *Rooke.*
 167 Justin, of Samaria, the oldest Christian author after the apostles.
 180 Lucian, the Roman philologer. *Dimsdale. Dryden. Franklin. Cur.*
 Marcus Aur. Antonius, Roman emperor and philosopher. *Cælius. Elphinstone.*
 193 Gallen the Greek philosopher and physician.
 200 Diogenes Lærtius, the Greek biographer, fl.
 229 Dion Cassius, of Greece, the Roman historian, fl.
 354 Origin, a Christian father, of Alexandria.
 Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman historian, fl. *Hart.*
 258 Cyprian, of Carthage, suffered martyrdom. *Marshall.*
 273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. *Smith.*
 320 Lactantius, a father of the church, fl.
 336 Arius, a priest of Alexandria, founder of the sect of Arians.
 342 Eusebius, the ecclesiastical historian and chronologer. *Manmer.*
 379 Basil, bishop of Casarea.
 389 Gregory Nazianzen, bishop of Constantinople.

397 Ambrose, bishop of Milan.

415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.

428 Eutropius, the Roman historian.

524 Bœtius, the Roman poet and Platonic Philosopher. *Bellamy. Preston. Redpath.*

529 Procopius, of Cæsarea, the Roman historian. *Holcroft.*

Here ends the illustrious list of ancient, or, as they are styled, Classic authors, for whom mankind are indebted to Greece and Rome, those two theatres of human glory; but it will ever be regretted, that a small part only of their writings have come to our hands. This was owing to the barbarous policy of those illiterate pagans who, in the fifth century, subverted the Roman empire, and in which practices they were joined soon after by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet, Constantinople alone had escaped the ravages of the barbarians; and to the few literati who sheltered themselves within its walls, is chiefly owing the preservation of those valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civility, and refinement, succeeded worse than Gothic ignorance—the superstition and buffoonery of the church of Rome; Europe therefore produces few names worthy of record during the space of a thousand years; a period which historians, with great propriety, denominate the dark or Gothic ages.

The invention of printing contributed to the revival of learning in the sixteenth century, from which memorable era a race of men have sprung up in a new soil, France, Germany, and Britain; who, if they do not exceed, at least equal, the greatest geniuses of antiquity. Of these the British Classics rank among the first; with whose names we shall finish our list.

A. C.

735 Bede, a priest of Northumberland; History of the Saxons, Scots, &c.

801 King Alfred; history, philosophy, and poetry.

1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Albans; History of England.

1292 Roger Bacon, Somersetshire; natural philosophy.

1308 John Fordun, a priest of Mearnsshire; History of Scotland.

1400 Geoffry Chaucer, London; the father of English poetry.

1402 John Gower, Wales; the poet.

1535 Sir Thomas Moore, London; history, politics, divinity.

1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.

1568 Roger Ascham, Yorkshire; philology and polite literature.

1572 Rev. John Knox, the Scotch reformer; History of the church of Scotland.

1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonshire; History of Scotland, Psalms of David, Politics, &c.

1598 Edmund Spenser, London; Fairy Queen, and other poems.

1615 —25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 53 dramatic pieces.

1616 William Shakespeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.

1622 John Napier, of Marcheston, Scotland, discoverer of logarithms.

1623 William Cambden, London; history and antiquities.

1626 Lord chancellor Bacon, London; natural philosophy and literature in general.

1634 Lord Chief Justice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.

1638 Ben Jonson, London; 53 dramatic pieces.

1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.

1654 John Selden, Sussex; antiquities and laws.

1657 Dr William Harvey, Kent; discovered the circulation of the blood.

1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miscellaneous poetry.

1674 John Milton, London; Paradise Lost, Regained, and various other pieces in verse and prose.

1674 Hyde, earl of Clarendon, Wiltshire; History of the Civil Wars in England.

1675 James Gregory, Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry, and optics.

1677 Reverend Dr. Isaac Barrow, London; natural philosophy, mathematics, and sermons.

1680 Samuel Butler, Worcestershire; Hudibras, a burlesque poem.

1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies with other poems.

1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems, speeches, letters, &c.

1688 Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somersetshire; Intellectual System.

1689 Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorsetshire; History of Physic.

1690 Nathaniel Lee, London; 11 tragedies.

Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.

1691 Honourable Robert Boyle; natural and experimental philosophy and theology.

Sir George M'Kenzie, Dundee; antiquities and laws of Scotland

- 1694 John Tillotson, archbishop of Canterbury, Halifax ; 254 sermons.
 1697 Sir William Temple, London ; politics and polite literature.
 1701 John Dryden, Northamptonshire ; 27 tragedies and comedies, satiric poems, Virgil.
 1704 John Locke, Somersetshire ; philosophy, government, and theology.
 1705 John Ray, Essex ; botany, natural philosophy, and divinity.
 1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry ; eight comedies.
 1713 Ant. Ash. Cooper, earl of Shaftesbury ; Characteristics.
 1714 Gilbert Burnet, Edinb. bishop of Salisbury ; history, biography, divinity, &c.
 1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonshire ; seven tragedies, translation of Lucan's Pharsalia.
 William Penn, religious and political tracts and essays, died July 30.
 1719 Rev. John Flamsteed, Derbyshire ; mathematics and astronomy.
 Joseph Addison, Wiltshire ; Spectator, Guardian, poems, politics.
 Dr. John Keil, Edinburgh ; mathematics and astronomy.
 1721 Matthew Prior ; poems and politics.
 1724 William Wollaston, Staffordshire ; Religion of Nature delineated.
 1727 Sir Isaac Newton, Lincolnshire ; mathematics, geometry, astronomy, optics.
 1729 Rev. Dr. Samuel Clarke, Norwich ; mathematics, divinity, &c.
 Sir Richard Steele, Dublin ; four comedies, papers in Tatler, &c.
 William Congreve, Staffordshire ; seven dramatic pieces.
 1732 John Gay, Exeter ; poems, fables, and eleven dramatic pieces.
 1734 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Mearnsshire ; medicine, coins, politics.
 1742 Dr. Edmund Halley, natural philosophy, astronomy, navigation.
 Dr. Richard Bentley, Yorkshire ; classical learning, criticism.
 1744 Alexander Pope, London ; poems, letters, translation of Homer.
 1745 Rev. Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin ; poems, politics, and letters.
 1746 Colin. McLaurin, Argyleshire ; algebra, view of Newton's Philosophy.
 1748 James Thomson, Roxburgshire ; Seasons and other poems, five tragedies.
 Rev. Dr. Isaac Watts, Southampton ; logic, philosophy, psalms, hymns, sermons, &c.
 Dr. Francis Hutcheson, Ayrshire ; system of moral philosophy.
 1750 Rev. Dr. Conyers, Middleton, Yorkshire ; Life of Cicero, &c.
 Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen ; metaphysics, and natural philosophy.
 1751 Henry St. John, Lord Bollingbroke, Surry ; philosophy, metaphysics, and politics.
 Dr. Alexander Monro, Edinburgh ; anatomy of the human body.
 1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London ; on poisons, plague, small-pox, medicine.
 Henry Fielding, Somersetshire ; Tom Jones, Joseph Andrews, &c.
 1757 Colley Cibber, London ; 25 tragedies and comedies.
 1761 Thomas Sherlock, bishop of London ; 69 sermons, &c.
 Benjamin Hoadly, bishop of Winchester ; sermons and controversy.
 Samuel Richardson, London ; Grandison, Clarissa, Pamela.
 Rev. Dr. John Leland, Lancashire ; Answer to Deistical Writers.
 1765 Rev. Dr. Edward Young ; Night Thoughts, and other poems, three tragedies.
 Robert Simson, Glasgow ; Conic Sections, Euclid, Apollonius.
 1768 Rev. Lawrence Sterne ; 45 Sermons, Sentimental Journey, Tristram Shandy.
 1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnshire ; harmonics and optics.
 1770 Rev. Dr. Jortin ; Life of Erasmus, Ecclesiastical History, and sermons.
 Dr. Mark Akenside, Newcastle upon Tyne : poems.
 Dr. Tobias Smollet, Dumbartonshire ; History of England, novels, translations.
 1771 Thomas Gray, professor of Modern History, Cambridge ; poems.
 1773 Philip Dormer Stanhope, earl of Chesterfield ; letters.
 George lord Lyttleton, Worcestershire ; History of England.
 1774 Oliver Goldsmith ; poems, essays and other pieces.
 Zachary Pearce, bishop of Rochester ; Annotations on the New Testament, &c.
 1775 Dr. John Hawkesworth ; essays.
 1776 David Hume, Merse ; History of England, and essays.
 James Ferguson, Aberdeenshire ; astronomy.
 1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall ; plays.
 1779 David Garrick, Hereford ; plays, &c.
 William Warburton, bishop of Gloucester ; Divine Legation of Moses, and various other works.

- 1780 Sir William Blackstone, judge of the court of common pleas, London; Commentaries on the Laws of England,
- 1780 Dr. John Fothergill, Yorkshire; philosophy and medicine.
James Harris; Hermes, Philological Inquiries, Philosophical Arrangements.
- 1782 Thomas Newton, bishop of Bristol, Lichfield; Discourses on the Prophecies, and other works.
Sir John Pringle, Bart. Roxburghshire; Diseases of the army.
Henry Home, Lord Kaimes, Scotland; Elements of Criticism, Sketches of the History of Man.
- 1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerkshire; anatomy.
Dr. Benjamin Kennicott, Devonshire; Hebrew Bible, Dissertations, &c.
- 1784 Dr. Samuel Johnson, Lichfield; English Dictionary, biography, essays, poetry; died Dec. 13, aged 71.
- 1785 William Whitehead, poet-laureat; poems and plays.
Rev. Richard Burn, LL.D. author of the Justice of Peace, Ecclesiastical Law, &c.; died Nov. 20.
Richard Glover, esq. Leonidas, Medea, &c. died Nov. 25.
- 1786 Jonas Hanway, esq. travels, miscellanies; died Sept. 5, aged 74.
- 1787 Dr. Robert Lowth, bishop of London; criticism, divinity, grammar; died Nov. 3.
Soame Jenyns, esq. Internal Evidence of the Christian Religion, and other pieces; died Dec. 18.
- 1788 James Stuart, esq. celebrated by the name of "Athenian Stuart," died Feb. 1.
Thomas Gainsborough, esq. the celebrated painter; died Aug. 2.
Thomas Sheridan, esq. English Dictionary, works on education, elocution, &c; died Aug. 14.
- 1789 William Julius Mickle, esq. Cumberland; translator of the Lusiad; died Oct. 15.
- 1790 Dr. William Cullen, Scotland; Practice of Physic, Materia Medica, &c.; died Feb. 5.
Benjamin Franklin, esq. Boston, New England; Electricity, Natural Philosophy, miscellanies; died April 17.
Dr. Adam Smith, Scotland; Moral Sentiments, Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations; died April 17.
John Howard, esq. Middlesex; Account of Prisons and Lazarettoes, &c.
Rev. Thomas Warton, B. D. poet-laureat; History of English Poetry, Poems; died April 21.
- 1791 Rev. Dr. Richard Price, Glamorganshire; on Morals, Providence, Civil Liberty, Annuities, Reversionary Payments, Sermons, &c.; died Feb. 19, aged 68.
Dr. Thomas Blacklock, Amundale; Poems, Consolations from Natural and Revealed Religion; died July, aged 70.
- 1792 Sir Joshua Reynolds, Devonshire; President of the Royal Academy of Painting; Discourses on Painting delivered before the Academy; died Feb. 19, aged 68.
- 1793 Rev. Dr. William Robertson, Principal of the University of Edinburgh, and historiographer to his majesty for Scotland; History of Scotland, of the Reign of Charles V, History of America, and Historical Disquisition concerning India; died June 11, aged 72.
- 1794 Edward Gibbon, esq. Surry; History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire; died Jan. 16.
- 1795 Sir William Jones, one of the judges of India, and president of the Asiatic Society; several law tracts, translation of *Isæus*, and of the *Moallakat*, or seven Arabian poems, and many valuable papers in the *Asiatic Researches*
- 1796 Robert Burns, poems chiefly Scottish, died July 21.
Thomas Reid, esq.; philosophy of the mind, died Oct. 7.
- 1797 Edmund Burke, esq. Sublime and Beautiful, Tracts on the French Revolution.
- 1799 W. Melmoth; Translations of Pliny's and Cicero's Letters, Fitzosborne's Letters, &c.
Lord Monboddo; Origin and Progress of Language.
- 1800 Rev. Dr. Joseph Warton; Poetry, Miscellaneous Literature.

- William Cowper, esq.; Poetry; died April 25.
Rev. Dr. Hugh Blair; Sermons, Lectures on Rhetoric.
1802 Dr. Erasmus Darwin; Botanic Garden, Zoonomia.
1803 James Beattie, LL.D; poetry, moral philosophy; died Aug. 18.
1804 Dr. Joseph Priestley; Natural Philosophy, Theological and Political Tracts.
William Paley, D. D.; moral and political philosophy, natural Theology.
1809 Beilby Porteus, D. D. Bishop of London; sermons, divinity; died May 14.
Tiberius Cavallo, F. R. S.; natural philosophy; died Dec. 26.
1811 Richard Cumberland; poetry, general literature; died May 7.
1812 John Horne Tooke; History, Philology; died March.

THE END.

W. Brown, Printer, Philadelphia.







